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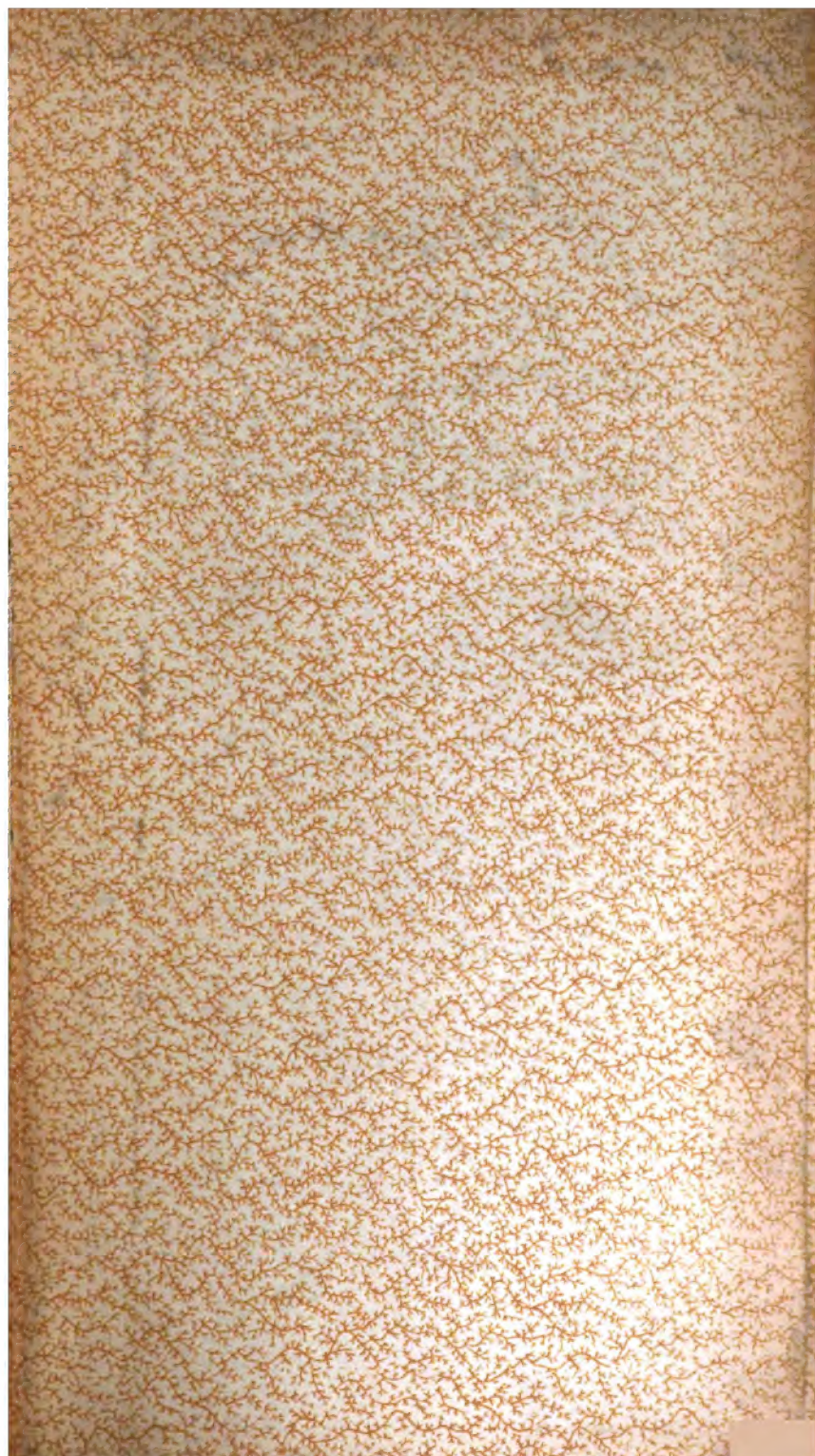
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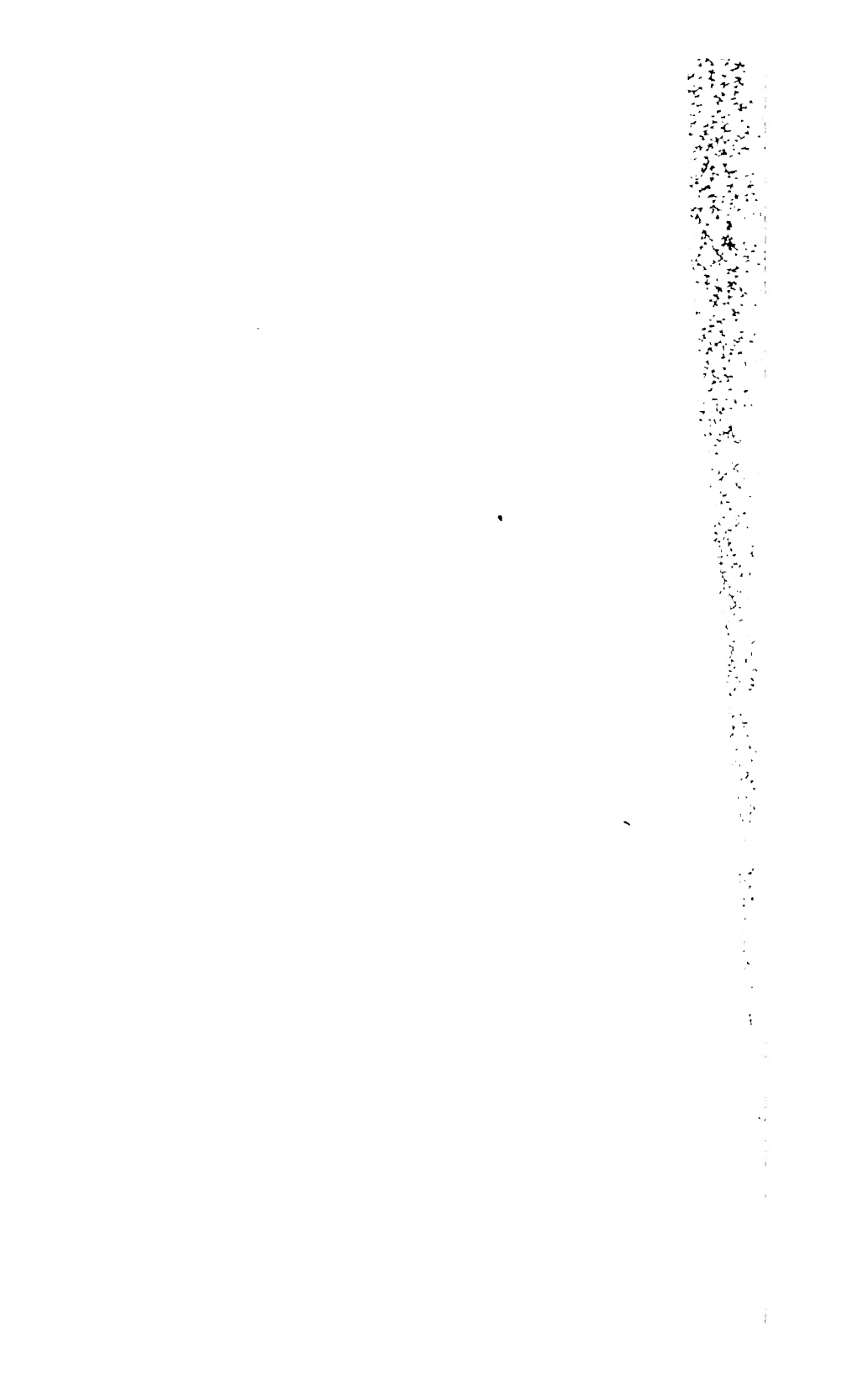
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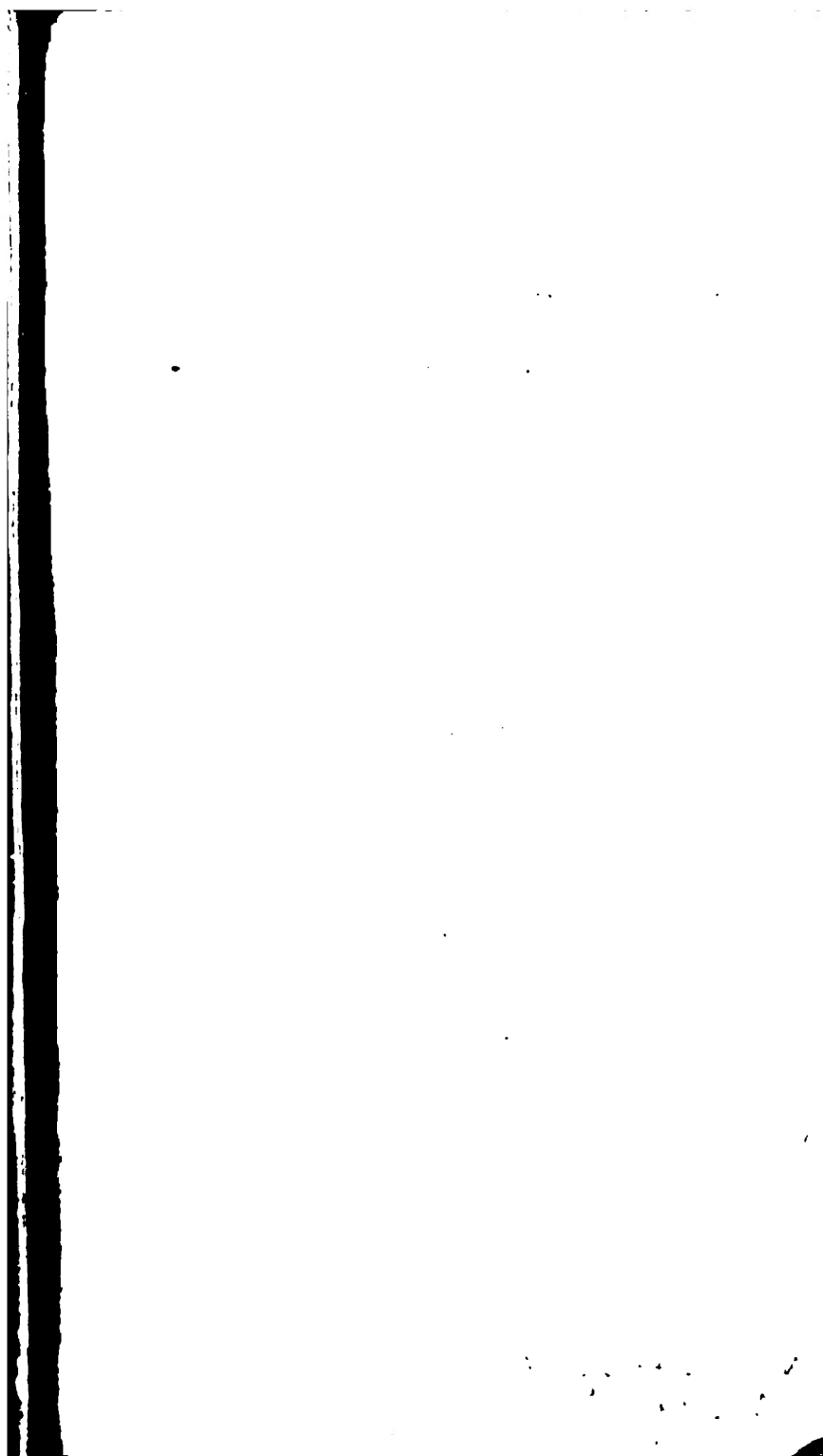
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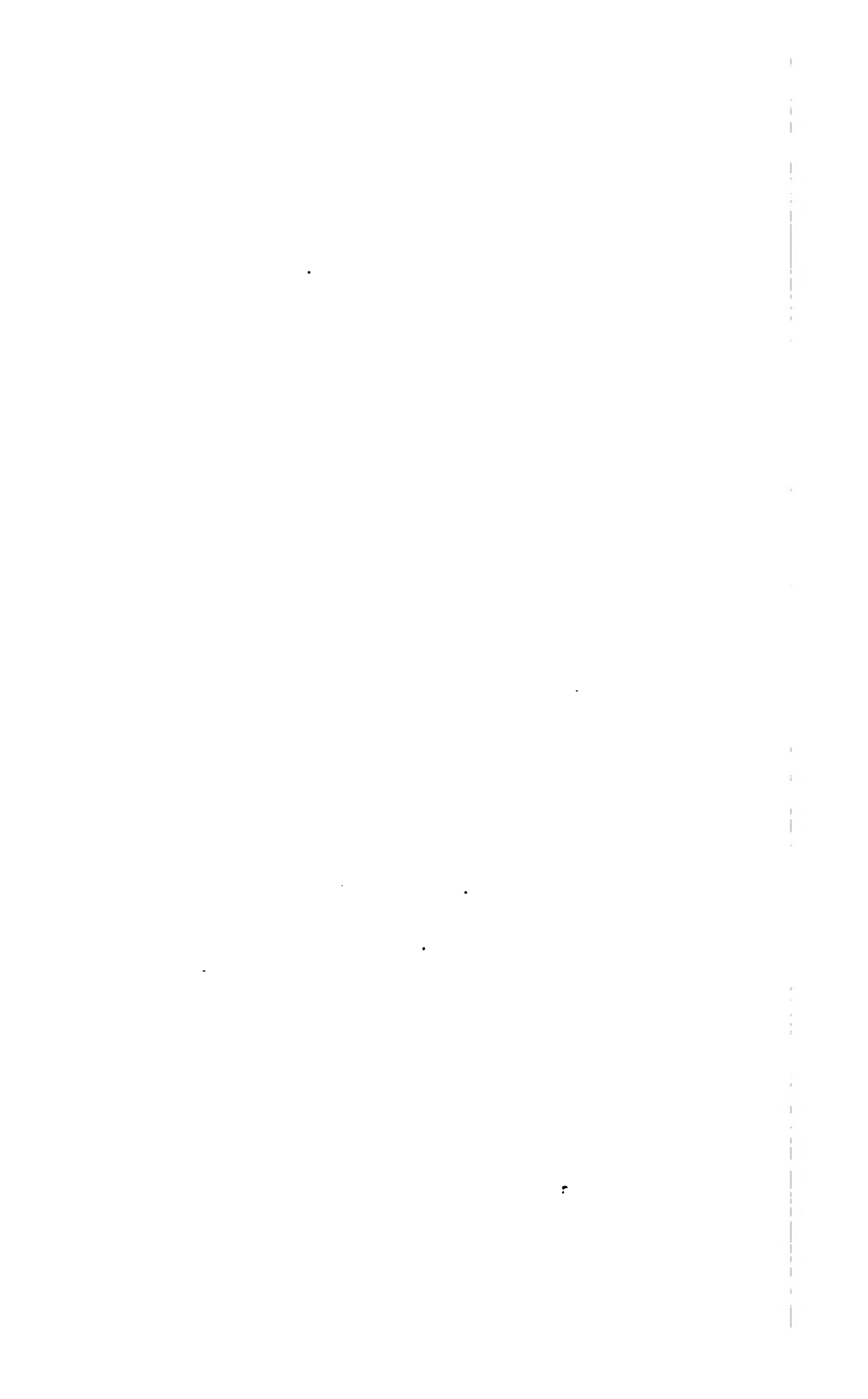






MAR 3 - 1914





THE
MONTHLY REVIEW;
OR
LITERARY JOURNAL,
ENLARGED:

FROM SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,XIII

With an APPENDIX.

*"Nihil enim mihi suavius est, quam corrigi; omnis enim correctio, à magnis viris
profecta, est via ad discendum; nec is ego profectò sum qui vituperari nolim, modò
vituperatio sit justa."*

VOLUME LXXII.



LONDON:



Sold by BECKET and PORTER, Booksellers, in Pall Mall.

M,DCCC,XIII.

**Strahan and Preston,
Printers-Street, London.**

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OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. FOR REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1813.

ART. I. *Petralogy.* A Treatise on Rocks. By J. Pinkerton. 8vo. 2 Vols. About 670 pages in each : with 25 Plates and Vignettes. 2l. 2s. Boards. White, Cochrane, and Co.

FROM the versatility of talent and pursuit which is occasionally exhibited by an individual, even though he be able and enlightened, we are seldom disposed to augur much solid benefit to the public. In the present enlarged state of knowledge, particularly, any one department of letters or of science affords ample scope for the exercise of the most vigorous intellect; and excellence can be attained only by years of exclusive and persevering industry, devoted to the culture of some favourite province. During one period of our vocation, we had presumed that Mr. Pinkerton had selected the wide and varied field of civil history for the display of his literary powers; and that the flattering eulogium bestowed on him by one of the most splendid writers of our times had confirmed him in his choice. We felt, therefore, something like disappointment, when we found him engaged in the compilation of a System of Geography, and of a Collection of Voyages and Travels; works which may, indeed, claim kindred with the themes of his former labours, and which unquestionably are of great practical utility, but the execution of which he might have safely resigned to those who are more conspicuous for soundness of judgment and habits of accurate diligence, than for novelty of research or brilliancy of genius. When we were informed, moreover, that Mr. P. had indited a *Tragedy*, which made some *noise* on the night of its performance, we opened his Treatise on *Rocks* with little prepossession in its favour. We are happy, however, to acknowledge that, in several important respects, our forebodings were premature; and that Mr. Pinkerton, who during his residence in Paris enjoyed frequent opportunities of access to some of the finest collections of mineral specimens in the world, and to the society of some of the most distinguished writers on the subject of his publication, appears to have devoted much of his attention to the study of geology, and much care and solicitude not only to the distribution of his materials, but also to the conveyance of them in language intelligible to English readers.

The principal originality of the work consists in its arrangement: which, though more philosophical and commodious than others that might be mentioned, will probably share the fate of many schemes that are conceived in wisdom, but rejected on the score of innovation; and we cannot deny that one or two of the chief deviations from the received nomenclature appear to be somewhat inconsiderate, or at least unnecessary. Thus, much elaborate argument is employed in attempting to prove that the term *species* cannot with any propriety be applied to mineral substances, as if it could not be admitted in a sense somewhat different from that which it denotes when predicated of animals and vegetables. In its native import, the word has no more connection with the idea of reproduction than *aspect*; an expression which Mr. Pinkerton gladly borrows from Dr. Thomson, and which may nevertheless be traced to the very same source with *species*. Nay, if the latter must absolutely be restricted to the organized productions of nature, the titles *Kingdom* and *Domain*, which the learned author adopts with perfect cordiality, but which strictly imply power and authority, should be held inapplicable to vegetables and stones. Mineralogists, it is true, may differ concerning the definition, identity, or synonymy of certain doubtful species: but so do zoologists and botanists. At all events, what do we gain in the way of precision by substituting *mode* for *species*, — a more vague for a more explicit category? By *mode*, however, it seems that we are to understand the *chemical mode of combination*, as if chemistry revealed more than the ingredients of which a mineral may happen to be composed, and their respective proportions; while the manner in which these proportions are combined, and on which it is highly probable that some of the most marked properties of the substance depend, remains concealed. In another passage, it is admitted that 'the mode may also more laxly be understood to include some modifications of external characters, under what is called aggregation in particular. Thus the aggregated stores may become modes, as well as the combined. But in passing to the structure and aspect, the chemical characteristics may in general be considered as abandoned, or exchanged for the physical or external.'

Again, if the science of mineralogy rests *entirely* on that of chemistry, (a position which is here very broadly asserted,) the results of chemical analysis alone should determine the station of different substances; and the principle of arrangement ought not to be deduced at one time from the preponderating *quantity* of an ingredient, at another from particular *qualities* or *aspects* imparted by a *small quantity* of the same ingredient, and at another

another from physical or external characters, without any regard to the chemical composition.

Mr. Pinkerton endeavours to justify the adoption of new names, on the consideration that the 'science itself is entirely new;' yet he also talks of the 'advanced state of the science;' expressions not easily to be reconciled by all the art of the logician. Besides, the substitution of a new term for an old one of established currency can seldom contribute to any useful purpose, and only adds to perplexity when the former conveys not a more distinct idea of the substance intended to be denoted than the latter. *Hornblend*, for example, is a word borrowed from the German, perhaps with no great felicity of choice: but does the *amphibole* of Häuy, or the *siderite* of the present author, (both derived from the Greek,) exhibit a more just or more lively image of the object to the mind? or do not both only serve to encumber a vocabulary already too much loaded with synonyms, and oppressed with neology?

Let us now make our readers acquainted with Mr. Pinkerton's leading divisions, which are thus briefly stated by himself:

'I would propose, therefore, in the present advanced state of the science, that the mineral kingdom be considered as divided into three provinces: 1. PETRALOGY, or the knowledge of rocks, or stones which occur in large masses. 2. LITHOLOGY, the knowledge of gems and small stones. 3. METALLOGY, or the knowledge of metals. Each of these branches is even at present so important, and offers such numerous topics of disquisition and research, that in the course of no long period a Professor of each will appear in Universities; and each might occupy the sole pursuit of an author who is zealous to make discoveries, or to compose complete and classical works. One of the chief causes of the slow progress of the science is, that it is too wide for one mind; and as zoology has been divided into ornithology, ichthyology, entomology, &c., so mineralogy, to be duly studied, should have grand subdivisions.

'These provinces may again be viewed as divided into DOMAINS, corresponding with the orders of some writers and the genera of others, as the provinces supply what are called Classes. This term DOMAIN is preferred to District, &c. as it not only implies a subdivision of a province, but, in another acceptation, a ruling or preponderating power, strictly applicable in mineralogy, where it is often the preponderance, and not the universality, which imparts the denomination. Thus in the siliceous, calcareous, and other domains, it is only understood that the denominating portion preponderates, as few or no rocks are pure, and unmixed with other substances.

'Petralogy, a province of mineralogy, may therefore be regarded as divided into Twelve Domains; of which the first six, being distinguished by the substances themselves, may be called SUBSTANTIAL: while the remaining six, being distinguished by circumstances or accidents of various kinds, may be called CIRCUMSTANTIAL, or ACCIDENTIAL; but this last division is of little moment.

'The first six domains of Petrology comprise, 1. The Siderous Rocks, or those in which iron predominates, not in the comparative quantity when analysed, but in the quality and essential difference which it imparts. 2. The Siliceous, denominated as usual from the quantity of silex. 3. The Argillaceous. 4. The Magnesian; these two are again denominated from *predominance*. 5. The Calcareous. 6. The Carbonaceous.

'The remaining six domains, derived from circumstances or accidents, are, 7. The Composite, or Aggregated Rocks, as calcareous spar with schorl, quartz, and garnets, felspar, and siderite or hornblend, &c. This domain has often been confounded with the granites, however alien from that description. 8. The Diamictonic, or rocks in which the substances are so completely mingled, that it is difficult, even upon an analysis, to pronounce which preponderates. 9. The Anomalous, or those which contradict the common order of nature, and present unexpected and unusual combinations. Some of these domains, though they afford few objects at present, may, in the progress of the science, be greatly enriched and enlarged; and the utility of such divisions will be more perceptible as the study advances towards perfection, the greatest obscurity at present arising from the want of necessary subdivisions.

'The remaining three domains are generally admitted in geological works, namely, 10. The Transilient Rocks, an interesting series, in which one substance gradually passes into another, as granite into porphyry, trap into wacken, and the like. 11. The Decomposed Rocks, which gradually decay into sand, clay, or productive soil. 12. The Volcanic, which require no other description.'

The above definition of *Transilient* distinctly expresses a *gradual* passage from one substance to another: but, in the introduction to that domain, we are expressly warned that the title intimates a *sudden* or *rapid* transition. 'This division includes the rocks which *suddenly* pass from one to another, so that specimens may sometimes even appear in cabinets,' &c. 'The *suddenness* of the transition has given rise to the denomination, which implies that the substance has *leaped*, as it were, from one to another.'

Subordinate to the foregoing divisions, are the *modes*, which are subdivided into *structures*; and these, in turn, are defined and discriminated by their states of texture, hardness, fracture, fragments, weight, lustre, and transparency: a series of characters, the framing of which appears to have consumed no trifling portion of the author's meditations. The colour is occasionally added, but scarcely recognized as a legitimate criterion, on account of its inconstancy.

'The new terms chiefly required were to designate the degrees of hardness and weight, which had been indicated by ciphers, even by authors who used epithets to express the other characters. As Chalk, Gypsum, Marble, Basalt, Felspar, Rock Crystal, and Coarundon, form various stages of hardness, at the distance of 200 or more

more in the common tables, they have been chosen to express the relative hardness of other substances, by the following terms: *Cretic, Gypsic, Marmoric, Basaltic, Felsparic, Crystalline, Corundic*. In order to diversify the form of the epithets, the weight has been designated by another Latin adjective termination, that in *osus*, which some grammarians affirm generally to denote weight or labour, as *laboriosus, ponderosus, operosus, &c.*, and the last word has even been admitted into classical English in the form *operose*. As Pumice, Coal, Granite, Siderite, and Barytes, form a scale of gradations in weight, they are here selected to denote that quality, as being *Pumicose, Carbonose, Granitose, Siderose, Barytose*.

In other parts of the Introduction, will be found some pertinent strictures on the Wernerian geognosy, and various miscellaneous remarks, expressed in an animated strain, and highly deserving of perusal.

Under the first, or siderous domain, are comprehended sixteen modes, which are denominated *Siderite, Basalt, Basaltin*, (fine-grained Basalt,) *Basaltin*, (coarse-grained Basalt, or secondary green-stone,) *Porphyry, Porphyrin, Porphyron, Porphyroid, Amygdalite, Iron-stone, Jasper, Slate, Mica slate, Sidero magnesian Rocks, Siderous Intrite, and Siderous Glutenite*.

'The rocks here called *Intrites*, because crystals or particles are imbedded in a paste, are distinguished from *Glutenites*, in which the particles coalesce together with little or no visible cement. The former have by the Germans been styled porphyries, from a similarity of structure; but the interspersing of a few crystals, especially of felspar or felsite, substances as common as mica, can hardly even be said to alter the nature of the rock; and such substances ought in geology to be classed with their parent base; for while all these kinds of pretended porphyries are classed under one head by Werner and his disciples, great confusion arises from their totally different natures.

'In the present work the intrites and glutenites are classed under the several domains to which they belong; but as the bases are of different kinds, it has been thought advisable to bring them under one point of view, at the end of each domain. As, however, the chief siderous intrites are the genuine porphyries, the preservation of this classical and universal name will considerably restrict the present division.'

Some of the most interesting states and varieties of Hornblend, with their respective localities, are distinctly pointed out under the article *Siderite*. — For the primitive green-stone of Werner, it is proposed to substitute *Wallerite*, in honour of Wallerius; and it constitutes, accordingly, the third structure of siderite, in the present arrangement. Allusions to the materials of ancient sculptures, and apposite extracts from Sausure's notices of rocks belonging to this division, are agreeably interspersed among the more scientific details. It might like-

wise have been mentioned that, near Houdon, Nantes, and Indret, hornblend occurs in very extensive beds, of greater or less thickness; and that those portions of them which are washed by the Loire are of a bright *blue* colour.

Basalt and its kindred modes occupy some amusing and instructive pages. On this long beaten and re-beaten ground, Mr. Pinkerton discreetly steers clear of theory: but he argues, perhaps rather too precipitately, against the identity of compact lava and basalt, from the rarity of the former in the neighbourhood of Vesuvius, because the matters ejected by different volcanos frequently present very different characters and aspects; and the compact sorts are as abundant within the range of *Ætna*, *Hecla*, and the extinct volcanos of Auvergne, as the porous are in the vicinity of Naples. Besides, the pointed and decisive testimony of Daubuisson, who formerly contended for the opposite doctrine, but whose candour yielded to ocular demonstration, affords a powerful argument in favour of the igneous origin of compact basalt. — An abstract of that gentleman's interesting observations on the Auvergne hills is here translated from the *Journal de Physique*. Brochant's statement of the arguments for and against the volcanic origin of Basalt, with the *healing* suggestions of Patrin, Dolomieu, &c., are also adduced. In a geological sketch, however, of this series of rocks, the spherical and radiated structures, of both of which Dolomieu and Faujas have quoted striking examples, ought not to have been overlooked.

Several of the most remarkable Porphyries, in the author's restricted sense of the term, are shortly particularized; as the red, black, green, &c., with others specified by Saussure. The terms *porphyry*, *porphyron*, and *porphyroid*, might perhaps have been spared, without much inconvenience: but their utility, we are told, will be more fully understood in the farther progress of the science.

The nature and varieties of Amygdalite are well detailed; though some persons will question the propriety of ranking it as a separate mode. — As the appellation of *Iron-stone* is liable to create confusion in the nomenclature, the substance which is here so denominated, and the *Eisenthon*, or *Iron-clay* of the Germans, (a modification of it,) might be more conveniently included under *Wacken*, from which they differ only by containing a larger proportion of iron.

Both Jasper and Slate are inserted in the Siderous domain, because the silex of the one and the argil of the other are regarded as comparatively of little importance, in characterizing their aspect: yet the schistose nature of the latter seems more obviously to assign to it a place among the argillaceous rocks.

The accounts of the slate quarries of Charleville and Angers, translated from Patrin's Mineralogy, are well calculated to fix the attention of the curious reader.

Under *Sidero Magnesian rocks*, are comprehended *Chlorite slate*, glassy *actinote*, and such of the *serpentine*s as are strongly impregnated with iron; under *Siderous Intrites*, are included the *variolites* of the Durance, Turin, &c., and *Iron-stone*, with imbedded crystals; and under *Siderous Glutenites*, such *breccias*, *pudding-stones*, and *sand-stones*, as have a ferruginous cement.—On the subject of *Siderous Glutenites*, we are presented with the following pertinent remarks:

‘ In arranging these substances, two objects are to be considered; the nature of the fragments or particles cemented, and that of the cement itself. When they are both of one kind, as a siliceous bricia*, or a pudding-stone with a siliceous cement, there can arise no doubt concerning their classification: but when, as often happens, the fragments are of one kind, and the cement of another, the domain may appear doubtful. The more general method, however, appears to have been, to denominate the substances from the cement, as being the predominating agent; and this rule is particularly applicable in the present instance, as oxyd of iron forms the strongest of natural cements. Bricias of basaltine or jasper are commonly cemented by the same substance, and sometimes, though rarely, by quartz; but they may still be referred to the predominating substance, the quartz being common, and of inferior consideration.

‘ The division of glutenites into bricias and pudding-stones, the former consisting of angular fragments, the latter of round or oval pebbles, would not be unadvisable, were it in strict conformity with nature. But there are many rocks of this kind; as, for example, the celebrated Egyptian bricia, in which the fragments are partly round and partly angular†; while the term glutenite is liable to no such objections, and the several structures identify the various substances.

‘ The celebrated English pudding-stone, found no where in the world but in Hertfordshire, appears to me to be rather an original rock, formed in the manner of *Amygdalites*, because the pebbles do not seem to have been rolled by water, which would have worn off the substances in various directions; while, on the contrary, the white, black, brown, or red circlets, are always entire, and parallel with the surface, like those of agates. Pebbles, therefore, instead of being united to form such rocks, may, in many circumstances, proceed from their decomposition, the circumjacent sand also arising from the decomposition of the cement.

* This word is strictly Italian; *bricia*, a crumb or small fragment, with its derivatives *bricioletta*, a little crumb, *briciolino*, and *briciolo*. *Breccia* is only a corruption.

‘ The Italian architects and statuaries gave the first modern classical names to rocks, as *granito*, *granitone*, *granitino*, &c. &c.’

‘ † So also the celebrated pudding-stone of England. See *Anomalous Rocks*.’

‘Mountains or regions of real glutenite often, however, accompany the skirts of extensive chains of mountains, as on the north-west and south-east sides of the Grampian mountains in Scotland, in which instance the cement is affirmed by many travellers to be ferruginous, or sometimes argillaceous. The largeness or minuteness of the pebbles or particles cannot be said to alter the nature of the substance; so that a fine sand-stone is also a glutenite, if viewed by the microscope. They may be divided into two structures: the large-grained, comprising bricias and pudding-stones; and the small-grained, or sand-stones.’

The members of the Siliceous series are *Quartz*, *Keralite*, (Rock-flint, or horn-stone of the Germans,) *Felspar*, *Felsite*, *Granite*, *Granitin*, *Graniton*, *Granitel*, *Granitoid*, *Granitic Porphyroid*, *Gneiss*, *Pitch-stone*, *Siliceus Intrite*, and *Siliceous Glutenite*. The term *keralite* may sound more classical to a scholar's ear than *horn-stone*, or the honest English *chert*: but the distinction of *felspar* and *felsite*, and of the different modifications of granite, appears needlessly to detract from the simplicity of elementary arrangement: yet, when only two of the essential ingredients of granite are present, *granitel* may be employed with advantage.—Among the structures of *Felsite*, (compact felspar,) the author reckons *Clink-stone* and *Clink-stone porphyry*, which were heretofore ranged, and perhaps with more propriety, among the trapps. The substances themselves are well described by the aid of Klaproth and Jameson, whose joint remarks leave little room for additional information.—As the granites of Mont Blanc are the highest rocks that have been observed by geologists, Saussure's account of them, in an English dress, will be particularly acceptable to those who have not perused it in the original.—Of the Granitels, four structures are enumerated; namely, felspar with hornblend, or *Wernerite*; felspar with quartz, or *Lehmanite*; quartz with hornblend, or *Henkelite*; and the *Mingled*, which implies any of the preceding, with the addition of schorl, garnets, or other parasitical stones. When Mr. Pinkerton proposed the denomination of *Wernerite*, was he aware that this term had been already bestowed, by Häuy and others, on a different substance? In like manner, when he proposed to designate a particular modification of gneiss by *Pinite*, did he recollect that the same name, though deduced from a different source, had been for some years employed to denote a crystallized mineral species, intermediate between steatite and mica? *Lehmanite* is scarcely less fortunate; being, in sound and orthography, so nearly allied to *Lemanite*, which some writers have appropriated to white jade, or nephrite.

Pitch-stone is treated in a more cursory manner than the recent information concerning it would have led us to expect.

Its Proteus character was particularly deserving of notice; for its texture is scarcely less variable than its colours, as it has been observed to shade off insensibly from semi-opal to jasper; and this transition may be sometimes traced in a single specimen not larger than a man's fist. Its specific gravity, too, is liable to vary from 2000 to 2300. The same remark applies to its fusibility; since, though it frequently melts without addition, Kirwan and others in vain attempted to fuse the pieces which they subjected to trial. In like manner, Spallanzani was unable to fuse the pitch-stone of Elba, and several varieties which he had received from different parts of Germany; while those of Saxony melted under a very moderate degree of heat, and those of the Pyrenées were converted into a beautiful white enamel. Among those of the Euganean mountains, which are regarded as volcanic productions, some are fused without difficulty, and others are much more refractory. The reports of the analyses of the different kinds are equally discordant: but it would be irksome to enumerate all the differences of result. From the writings of Klaproth, Jameson, and Spallanzani, much valuable matter might have been extracted for the illustration of this mineral species. Daubenton and Ruprecht have also treated, the former on pitch-stone in general, and the latter on that of Hungary.

The modes which Mr. Pinkerton assigns to the Argillaceous domain are, *Alum-rock, Clay-slate, Clay-rock, Wacken, Smectite*, (Fullers' earth,) *Iconite*, (Bildstein, or Figure-stone,) Argillaceous Intrite, and Argillaceous Glutenite. If most of these are dispatched with apparent brevity, it ought not to be forgotten that their constitution and properties have hitherto received a very inadequate share of the attention of most mineralogists.—The *Graverack* of the Germans is included among the glutenites, and treated at considerable length under the new appellation of *Bergmanite*.

The Talcaceous domain comprizes *Talc, Talcous slate, Micarel slate, Steatite, Ollite*, (Pot-stone,) *Serpentine, Saussurite, Green Granitel, Magnesian Lime-stone, Green Marble, Magnesian Intrite*, and *Magnesian Glutenite*. Micarel slate is thus briefly described:

‘ This has commonly been confounded with mica slate, and has the same general appearance; the spangles having however sometimes more of the silver lustre, and in other examples more of the unctuous cast of talc, than is observable in mica slate, where the magnesia is strongly impregnated with iron. It has also the usual adjuncts of talc, and seldom contains garnet, or the other siderous substances, that are found in mica slate. In decomposition, it sometimes forms plates or illinitions of steatite between plates of quartz. It abounds in all the primitive countries, but has not yet been distinguished from mica slate.

‘ *Aspect*

' *Aspect 1.* Micarel slate, from the bed of the Ganges, near Sirinagur.

The same, from the Alps.

The same, from Scotland.

' *Aspect 2.* Dendritic, from Spain.'

We expected to have found *Muscovy glass* referred to *Mica*, and not to *Talc*, since the distinction seemed to have been at length sufficiently established. The extraction of the substance itself from its native repository, as detailed by the elder Gmelin and others, might have furnished a few of those pleasing pages which Mr. P. has in many instances so judiciously interspersed with those of a less inviting description.

The loose and ambiguous acceptation of the French terms *cornéenne* and *pierre*, and *roche de corne*, certainly required that they should either be precisely defined or cancelled from the mineralogical vocabulary. We cannot, however, subscribe to the propriety of fixing on the term *Saussurite*, to represent the *pierre de corne* of Saussure, because the same name already denoted the tenacious jade of that writer, or the tenacious felspar of Haiiy.

' *Green Granitel* seems a mixture of felspar and siderite with steatite, the magnesia having even penetrated the felspar, and imparted its usual green colour, whence it has received its common appellation. — It is found in the Vosges mountains in France; and there is a manufactory at Paris, where it is cut into tables, vases, chimney-pieces, and other articles of decoration. The fracture has the soft unctuous appearance of a magnesian rock, and the obscure green colour is a further characteristic of that class of stones, so that there seems little doubt but it must belong to this domain. Similar granitels are found, it is believed, in Westmoreland, and in Ireland. Occasionally some crystals of the felspar are large and regular, when it assumes the form of a porphyry.'

By *Green Marble* in this division of the subject, the author means certain irregular and original compounds of serpentine and marble, in which the former is preponderant; as the *verde antico*, *Polzevera*, and the marble of Anglesea. Lest any of our readers should be startled at this collocation of the *verde antico*, we shall select the ensuing passage from among various others to the same effect which occur in these volumes, and which bespeak much critical acuteness:

' The most celebrated rock of this description is that called the *verde antico*, or ancient green, in which a green serpentine with dark spots, seemingly rather argillaceous, is interspersed with a pure white marble. This is the Laconian marble of the ancients, of which there were quarries near Mount Taygetus; and Pliny has rightly characterized it as more cheerful than any other. But the whole passage again deserves attention: "Some marbles are esteemed VERY PRECIOUS, as the Lacedemonian green, more cheerful than all the rest.

So

So ALSO the Augustean, and afterwards the Tiberian, first discovered in Egypt in the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius. The difference between them and Ophites is, that the latter is spotted like a serpent, whence it received the name; while the others present spots of a different form, the Augustean being crisped into wavy spots, while in the Tiberian the white (*cavities*) is scattered, not convolved."

' Such is this celebrated passage, which has led to many errors in mineralogy, as it has been conceived that the ophites was green porphyry, and that the other kinds were green; whereas it is clear from the subsequent part of Pliny's description, that the ophites was grey or whitish, being a spotted ollite, and when the spots were of golden mica it became the most esteemed *Lapis Thebaicus* of the ancients. In like manner the "*sic*, so the Augustean," only implies that both were esteemed very precious, like the Laconian, but not that they were of a green colour *.'

The modes attributed to the Calcareous Domain are, *Marble*, *Konite*, (compact lime-stone of an earthy fracture,) *Lime-stone*, *Alabastrite*, *Lime Slate*, *Coral Rock*, *Marlite*, *Orsten*, (Swine-stone,) *Gypsum*, *Alabaster*, *Chalk*, *Tufa*, *Calcareous Intrite*, and *Calcareous Glutenite*. Of these, *marble* forms the longest and most interesting article; its principal varieties, antient and modern, being distinctly classed under the *granular*, *compact*, *conchitic*, and *zoophytic*, with occasional hints and remarks which can scarcely fail to fix the attention both of the geologist and the artist. Our limits, however, will not permit us to dwell on particular passages; and we must be satisfied, for the present, to observe that some valuable suggestions have been derived from the recent treatise of Mr. Brand, a young mineralogist of high promise; as also that the excellence and beauty of some of our neglected native marbles are recorded, in the spirit of genuine patriotism.

Lime-slate, the *Calcareous fissilis* of Wallerius, is placed in a distinct mode from *Lime-stone*, as it is more abundant in argil, and usually contains mica.

Of *Coral Rock*, it is observed:

' It has not yet been mentioned in books of mineralogy, though large islands and vast shoals in the South Sea, particularly on the east of Australasia, are wholly composed of it, according to the accounts of navigators. Coral itself is now known to be the gradual structure of minute insects, which thus surpass all the powers of man: for the locust can spread more destruction than an Attila, a Timur, or any other conqueror; and a beneficent monarch can only found a city;

* * For the antient testimonies concerning the green marble of Laconia, the reader is referred to the learned work of Blasius Caryophilus, (Biagio Garofalo,) *De Marmoribus Antiquis*. Traj. 1743, 4to. Some extracts may be found in the Appendix. See also the account of the antient marbles in Domain v.'

while insects almost invisible found islands, and even continents, the scenes of future glory and misery to mankind.

‘ Whether these insects produce the matter of coral, or imbibe it from the waters of the ocean, these islands rise from a surprising depth, and, when they surpass the waves, begin to produce lichens and mosses; which, decaying and rotting, afford a soil for other small vegetables, till by degrees reeds, shrubs, and trees, begin to decorate the new creation. The calcareous soil being fertile, these islands will in the course of centuries invite colonies, whose future mineralogists may perhaps be embarrassed to account for their native rocks; which may at once confer benefits on agriculture and on architecture, for zoophytic marble will not be wanting for the construction of their edifices.

‘ Rocks of a somewhat similar nature abound near Sutherland, on the eastern coast of England; and near Peterhoff, at the further extremity of the Gulf of Finland. This singular lime-stone seems composed of tubes of madrepore or coral, often with open intervals; and, at Sutherland, is the common building-stone.’

To the Carbonaceous Domain belong *Graphite*, *Anthracite*, *Coal*, and *Lignite*. In discoursing of coal, Mr. Pinkerton asserts in one place that ‘ it is now well known from the experiments of Mr. Hatchet, that this substance is of vegetable origin,’ and in another that ‘ the origin of coal is far from being ascertained.’ On the Wernerian classification of the different sorts of coal, he is by no means sparing, and he treats it as alike barbarous and unnecessarily confused.

Lignite, a denomination borrowed from Brongniart, includes the *Brown-coal* of Werner; or, more intelligibly, *jet*, *Moon-coal*, *Cologne-earth*, and *Surturbrand*, or *Bovey-coal*.

‘ Having in the former volume comprized all the Domains which may be called Substantial, as depending upon the predominant substance, under various modes of combination, it is now necessary to enter on another field, that of the Accidental Rocks, which must of course be arranged according to their various accidents*. These accidents being, so to speak, infinitely diversified, and independent of any mode in the sense used in the former volume, and often even of structures and aspects, it was necessary to adopt new denominations. Even the Domains now become what might be called Dominions in the natural kingdom, as they no longer imply the preponderant or predominant substance, but grand divisions arising from natural accidents, as the Volcanic and Decomposed Rocks.

‘ But while the term Domain still seemed unobjectionable, it became necessary to abandon the other subdivisions, which being de-

* Pliny has *natura accidentia*; Cicero *accidentia* for *res attributa*. *Accidence* is here used in contradistinction to *accident*, which, in common English, implies a moral event or incident, not an accidental circumstance in nature. *Accidence* is here a natural casualty, an adventitious attribute.’

rived from the substances, and their qualities, could have no place here. Instead of denominations strictly arising from the very essence of the subject discussed, the subdivisions themselves became, so to speak, accidental and arbitrary. The only idea that arose was to select terms that might indicate subdivisions of the domains, and still, if possible, preserve some relation with chemistry, upon which the whole science of mineralogy ultimately depends. In Egypt, universally known to have been the parent country of chemistry, the small provinces or districts were distinguished by an appellation which the Greeks have translated *Nomes*, from a word simply implying divisions. But the word may be said to have remained sacred to Egypt, not having been transferred to the provinces of any other country. This word had also the advantage of subdivisions easy to the memory; in Hyponome and Micronome, implying greater and lesser subdivisions of the Nome.

'Such were the reasons for the preference of this arbitrary term to any other arbitrary term; and as it cannot be too often repeated that the chief use of any system of natural history is to assist the memory, it will perhaps be difficult to find a term less objectionable: at least, though the plan has been deeply reconsidered for many years, none such has arisen to the author: but perhaps candid disquisition and literary collision, may produce some more appropriate appellation, which he would be the first to adopt, having no view but the advancement of the science.'

In the remaining parts of the introduction to the second volume, Sir Humphrey Davy's notions concerning the phenomena of volcanos, and the geological opinions of Ferrara, De Luc, &c. are shortly passed in review; and we are again reminded of the little stress that ought to be laid on theoretical tenets, before a sufficient quantity of accurate facts and data has been collected.

As most of the accidental domains relate to combinations of substances previously described, their consideration needs not occupy much of our attention. The seventh, in particular, which is denominated the *Composite*, chiefly consists in a statement of twenty-seven sorts of aggregate rocks, of which the titles indicate their composition. Among the most singular of these, we may note jasper with agate and chalcedony, in veins of white, green, red, yellow, and purple, found at Monte Rufolo, in the Volterrano, and susceptible of a beautiful polish. Another consists of quartz, hornblend, mica, oxyd of iron, with a tabular felspar which Nose, who discovered it, calls *Sanidine*; a substance in silky tufts which he calls *Dermine*; and a mineral resembling spinell, which he therefore calls *Spinelan*. This extraordinary compound occurs on the banks of the lake of Laach, near Andernach. The union of felspar with calcareous spar is very rare, and seems to be limited to the ejections of Vesuvius. The association of lime-
stone

stone with amorphous and with crystallized garnet has been repeatedly observed in the Pyrenées; and with olivin, in Monte Somma. In the Pyrenées, and it is believed also in Sweden, marble and calcareous spar occur with asbestos.

The *Diamictonic* domain embraces those rocks in which two or more substances are so thoroughly blended or combined, that their names cannot well be instituted from the preponderance or predominance of either. Twenty-nine such are described, and their new appellations are derived from the names of some of the most celebrated chemists of antient and of modern times. The number might probably admit of considerable increase; since many rocky substances of ambiguous aspect have been excluded from the nomenclature of professed systematists. In Mr. Pinkerton's list, the remarkable *glazed rock* of Saussure justly takes the lead, under the appellation of *Democrilite*; and the not less remarkable combination of gypsum with silex, the *vulpino* of the Italians, closes the catalogue, with the name of *Davite*, in compliment to Sir Humphrey Davy.

The epithet *anomalous* is here bestowed on such rocks as either exhibit singular structures or are of rare occurrence. Now, if these cannot be conveniently distributed among the other domains, according to the principle of preponderance or predominance, they should form the subject of an appendix, rather than be incorporated in the regular part of the method. To this domain, however, the author has assigned twenty-three names; of which the first, denominated *Miagite*, is synonymous with the Corsican granitel. 'The block found in Corsica was by the French mineralogists considered as unique, till the author pointed out to them a clear passage in the travels of Saussure; whence it appears that this rock was found on the glacier of Miage, long before its discovery in Corsica.' — *Niolite*, so called from *Niolo*, a mountain-chain in Corsica, has a base of brown compact felspar, marbled with red, presenting large spherical and flesh-coloured felspar, disposed in unequal rays, which diverge from the centre to the circumference. — *Corsilite* is a new name for the *Verde di Corsica* of the Italians, consisting of a base of compact felspar with *Smaragdite* or *diallage*; *Runite* is synonymous with *graphic granite*; and *Kollanite*, on which the author is somewhat diffuse, though far from uninteresting, is *English Pudding-stone*. The titles of the other names of this domain require no particular explanation.

The *Transilient* division 'includes the rocks which suddenly pass from one to another.'

' Great

'Great care must be exerted not to confound the rocks which are merely adherent, or composite, with those that really graduate into one another. Saussure, in speaking of a Russian traveller, says that he would have boldly asserted that a roasting goose graduates into the spit. Thus some theorists have conceived that lime becomes flint, or flint graduates into lime, from the mere mixture of the particles near the line of their junction. The most proper and undoubted graduations occur only among the kindred rocks; and are generally a mere variation of the mode of structure; as the passage from granite to gneiss, or from granite to granitic porphyry. If the granite be surcharged with siderite, and its particles become very small, it may pass into the real basalt of the ancients; but can never become a basaltin interspersed with chrysolite or zeolite; and if the basaltin occur with granite, it must be merely adherent. Keralite may, by imbibing iron from the atmospheric air, or whatever cause, become jasper. Werner has observed, that wacken passes into clay on one hand, and basaltin on the other; which last again passes into basaltin or grunstein. Many other undoubted transitions may be observed: but it will suffice to enumerate some of the most remarkable, leaving the others to time and accurate observation.'

Of the fourteen kinds which are particularized, the titles indicate the composition, as *Siderite* and *Basalt*, *Basaltin* and *Basalt*, &c.

The institution of a separate domain for the *decomposed* rocks strikes us as somewhat unphilosophical, because the appearances which they exhibit in consequence of decomposition properly make part of their natural history, and should be contrasted with those of their fresh and healthy state, under the appropriate divisions of each. By this remark, however, we would not be understood to insinuate that the decomposition of rocky substances is a matter of trivial importance: on the contrary, we are perfectly aware that it has hitherto engaged too little of the attention of the geologist either in a scientific or an economical point of view; and the only consideration which we mean to suggest relates to a proposed alteration in the arrangement of the subject. — The introduction to this domain abounds in excellent observations, several of which are extracts from the writings of Kirwan, Playfair, and others.

Mr. P. discusses the *volcanic* department at very considerable length, and with all the candour to which a subject so fertile of *ardent* controversy is intitled. Without a determined bias to any particular theory, he insinuates that, by the help of subterranean waters, and fissures in the very nucleus of the globe, together with the phænomena of mud-eruptions, some feasible hypothesis might be devised, that would reconcile the jarring pretensions of fire and water, and go far to explain the origin of basaltic rocks. From this amicable compromise, he

he excepts 'the puerile ideas of those Wernerians who have never visited volcanic countries, and who impute these wonderful efforts of nature to a few beds of coal!' The burning of coal-strata we have always conceived to be a very inadequate cause of volcanic explosions: but we suspect Mr. Pinkerton's accuracy when he asserts, both in his introduction to the volcanic domain and under the article *Fumavols*, that 'a large bed of coal near Dysart has been on fire since the days of Buchanan, the poet.' If our information be correct, the spontaneous combustion of certain portions of the coal-field at Dysart has taken place only occasionally; and, though George Agricola noticed it, and Buchanan alluded to it, this phenomenon has seldom occurred since their time. In the course of the last century, the field was once set on fire by accident, and twice by the decomposition of pyrites: but, on these two last occasions, the flames were extinguished by excluding the air from the shafts, and allowing the water to rise on the workings.

To the geological reader who has not perused the original work, the outline which is here traced of the Abbé Ferrara's doctrines relative to the volcanos of Sicily, and the neighbouring isles, will probably appear the most inviting portion of the introduction to this domain. Its nine Nomes are intitled, *Compact Lava, Vesicular Lava, Indurated Mud, Tufo, Pumice, Obsidian, Volcanic Intrite, Volcanic Glutenite, and Substances ejected or changed.* To the consideration of these are subjoined *General Remarks, and Examples of Singular Volcanos*, with some account of *Fumavols*, or pseudo-volcanos.—In few systematic works, will such a full and accurate exposition of volcanic products and phenomena be found, as Mr. Pinkerton has presented to his readers, with much judgment and industry; selecting his materials from the most respectable sources, and accompanying the translated extracts with suitable remarks. Indeed, the whole illustration of this concluding domain will probably be regarded by competent judges as the best conducted portion of a well conducted work.

A supplementary article furnishes a short account of *Vein-stones*, with a reference to Werner's *Théorie de la Formation des Filons*, for more ample particulars. As a proof of the recent formation of silix, the following apparently extraordinary fact is adduced:

* In his account of his own cabinet, Trebra mentions that, in 1782, a peasant digging his garden in the village of Seppenrode, dependent on the bishopric of Munster, found a grey flint, about nine inches in length by four in breadth, having nothing particular in its exterior appearance; but having broke it for his tinder-box, he found within a cylindrical cavity, containing twenty little pieces of silver, which

which appeared to have been tied with a thread, of which some vestiges were apparent. The cavity was exactly moulded on this little pile of coins, and the inside was black; but the most surprising circumstance is, that the most ancient of these coins are only of the sixteenth century. Treba's cabinet contained a piece of this flint, and one of the coins presented to him by Prince Gallitzin, with an authentic certificate of the circumstances above mentioned.

We will not presume to contradict a matter of fact, which seems to rest on such creditable authority: yet it may probably admit of a simple explanation; for, if we suppose that the coins were concealed in a flint originally hollow, and artificially closed at one or both ends, the whole mystery vanishes at once: but if the siliceous matter had really grown round the pieces, it would be of some consequence to ascertain the nature of the soil in which the specimen was found, as it might help to throw some light on the formation of flint in general; a subject which has been much agitated, and which is necessarily accompanied with much obscurity. We can also conceive that a rouleau of small coins, suspended for some time in one of the galleries of the mines of Cremonitz, might be completely incased in a stalactite of silex; and that one or two analogous instances, quoted by Schneider, may have had a similar origin.

The appendix contains some curious passages from Zoega, on the ancient manner of carving granite; illustrations of the ancient marbles; note of the value at Rome of specimens of ancient stones; account of the hill of St. Gilles, near Liege; of the strata at Portsoy, in Scotland; farther illustrations of Miagite and Niolite; Reineggs on the mineralogy of the Archipelago; account of some rocks in the south of Hindostan; letter of M. Daubuisson, on his intended treatise of Geognosy; explanation of the direction and inclination of veins; and examples of the application of the present system to lithology and metallurgy. As the substances which belong to these two last-mentioned provinces are generally of a more simple and elementary description than masses of rock, it might have been advisable to have treated of them in the first instance: but we are little disposed to quarrel with a work so popular and useful as the present, because it might have been preceded rather than followed by another on different branches of the same science. We only flatter ourselves that the author will be encouraged to undertake and execute the whole of his plan, and thus to afford to the British public a more classical and intelligible view of mineralogy than any which has yet appeared. By many persons, no doubt, his arrangement will be deemed fanciful or artificial, and some may object to the

number and length of his transcriptions : but a method founded even on arbitrary and conventional divisions is surely preferable to one that rests on ideal formations ; and when much valuable knowledge lies scattered in untranslated volumes, no man of talents should disdain to collect the leading facts, and the most important or attractive recitals, under the form of analytical illustration. Such an office is more peculiarly suited to those who, like Mr. Pinkerton, are little influenced by the seducing magic of pre-conceived theory, and who can state the sentiments of authors with due regard to their biasses and prepossessions. When we add that the style of these volumes is nervous and precise, though occasionally marked by an affectation of neology, that their typography is handsome and correct, and that they are embellished with neat engravings and vignettes, we conceive that we have reported their nature and merits with all the deliberation that is consistent with our limits, and all the impartiality that is inseparable from our duty.

ART. II. *A View of Society and Manners in the North of Ireland, in the Summer and Autumn of 1812.* By J. Gamble, Esq., Author of "Sketches of History, Politics, &c., taken in Dublin, &c., in 1810." 8vo. pp. 399. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cradock and Joy. 1813.

Of the former production of this author, we gave a full account in our lxvith Vol., p.164.; and we described him as a writer of lively powers, although irregular and sometimes even fantastic in his manner. The attention excited by that work has encouraged him to come before the public a second time, and to prefix his name : but in this, as in the previous volume, he prefers the "hasty sketch, the short tale, the brief dialogue, to the formal dissertation ;" and, without making pretensions to science, he directs his attention to the delineation of human actions and human passions. In this manner, he has found means to exhibit animated sketches of the prominent qualities of his countrymen, the inhabitants of the north of Ireland ; and to create an impression on the attention of his reader, which is likely to remain when more elaborate descriptions have escaped from recollection.

Mr. Gamble adopts the plan of a narrative, divided into chapters, each of which is dated from one of the various resting-places in his peregrinations. He begins with the account of his passage from Liverpool, and of his escape from shipwreck on the coast of Ireland, near the town of Newry. In addition to the dangers of the ocean, he had the mortification to find that, since his last visit to Ireland, the price of wine had risen
exactly

exactly in proportion as its quality had deteriorated; and his residence in England had not proved a good preparation to the inconvenience of travelling in the sister-kingdom :

‘ A man who travels in Ireland should, above all things, arm himself with good humour. He must reconcile himself, during the day, to manners more plain and familiar, than refined or considerate — nor can he always escape from them at night. There are generally two beds in a room. I was shewn into one where there were three, and not as a special favour, was put in a press one. I had lain down about an hour, when my two colleagues came in whistling and singing. Whiskey sometimes makes men musical, and always makes them noisy. Those two continued conversing a long time after they had lain down. I kept quiet, though many of the speeches were directed at me. “ Our friend in the press bed,” at length said one of them, “ is strangely silent.” “ At one in the morning, and in bed, silence is not so extraordinary,” said I, perceiving that those drunken young gentlemen, like the sober old English law, were determined to press me to speak. I was awaked at an early hour by the bustle of the people preparing to go with the coaches. They were laughing, conversing, and scolding, with apparent forgetfulness of any one being in bed near them. They “ murdered sleep” as effectually as a guilty conscience could have done. I therefore got up and walked quietly away, perfectly sensible, that in no country in the universe, is an humble pedestrian of much consideration with chambermaids or waiters.

‘ I walked about the town until the shops were opened. I then waited on a respectable merchant, who invited me to breakfast, and insisted on my passing a few days at his house. It is there I write this chapter, which I cannot conclude without remarking, that it would be unfair to judge the Irish character by what we see at inns. The people most frequently met with at them, are young men just escaped from control, who think noise and impudence proofs of courage, and knowledge of life. The greatest and most valuable part of the community live at home, and are seen to most advantage in their own houses. It is there I like to see them; and though sometimes I may have experienced slight inconveniences, rarely ever was I in an Irish private house that I did not feel myself at home.’

Pursuing his course northwards, Mr. G. visited Hillsborough, the paragon of Irish towns, built on the top of a hill; also Lisburn, which is likewise an elegant town; and he paused for a short time in his progress to mix in the affluent society of Belfast. Here he paid a daily visit to the city-library, where he regularly found himself alone, the inhabitants of this bustling place having little leisure for reading. If literary men, however, were scarce, merchants were abundant, and discovered much more jealousy of the proceedings of ministers than he had been accustomed to find among the same class on the English side of the channel. From Belfast, he proceeded on foot in the direction of Carrickfergus and Larne, and had additional opportunities of observing the peculiarities of the country.

' I passed several gentlemen's seats, and passed and met, and was overtaken by a number of people, who either bid me good-day, or good-e'en, or stopped to ask me a few questions. Custom renders it necessary on an Irish road to say something in passing—the observations made to me on the weather were endless—it was hot, cold, fine weather, and threatened rain, in the course of half an hour. It was impossible, therefore, to give meditation much room. It was impossible, for another reason,—the abominable custom of repairing the road with stones is almost universal—in one part there was upwards of a mile covered in this manner. I crawled on it for some time, but at length found it intolerable—it was a real penance, and I might as well, like Peter Pindar's pilgrim, have gone to my lady's house of Loretto, with peas in my shoes. I, therefore, got into the fields, and scrambled over hedge and ditch as well as I could. I incurred a heavy curse of the Jewish law, for I am sure I must have trod down the standing corn. The road near Larne is more sublime than beautiful—it winds along the sea, and in some parts descends so abruptly, that one would suppose, like the sun, it was going to bury itself in it.—

' Larne is a clean but straggling town. I arrived about seven o'clock. I stopped at a quiet little house, ordered dinner, and amused myself by looking out of the window till it was ready. An elderly man, on a lean horse, rode slowly up to the door. A moment afterwards the girl (girls in these small inns are almost always the waiters) came in to know if I would allow a stranger to dine with me. I consented readily, for there are times when any company is better than a man's own thoughts.

"He'll be well worth his room," said the girl, "for he's a knowing chap, and has written a printed *buks*."

' The lower classes here, like the Scotch, are brought up in an habitual reverence for literature, and to have written a printed *buks* is high praise; whether it is an Almanack or Paradise Lost, makes little difference. My brother traveller, from his appearance and manner, might have been author of a dictionary; he was, however, only editor of a magazine, and was then abroad collecting orders or materials. I found him a rational and intelligent man—a politician, but a gloomy one.'—

' I quitted Larne next day after breakfast. I took the road to Ballymena. I had originally proposed going to Glenarn, and along the coast to the Giants' Causeway. Circumstances have occurred to prevent me; and probably will ever now prevent me, yet I should strongly recommend this route to every person who visits this part of Ireland. The coast is, I understand, highly romantic, the people civil and obliging, and the accommodations not uncomfortable. I advise the traveller to carry with him Dr. Drummond's poem on the Causeway. The notes contain much valuable matter, and the prints are said to be faithfully executed.'

In consequence of the mixed society which a person travelling in Mr. Gamble's manner, as a pedestrian, naturally finds, the attention is often drawn to the unhappy differences of the
Irish

Irish in religion and politics. The Catholics he found accusing the Protestants of "selling the pass on them," (by which they mean deserting them,) after having been instrumental in leading them into the late rebellion. The fact was that the United Irishmen were composed of both religions, although their motives in opposing government were materially different: the Protestants were enthusiasts for parliamentary reform; the impression of their success during the American war, when embodied into volunteer corps, being fresh in their recollection. Scarcely had the British government, seconded by Lord Charlemont and other moderate patriots, succeeded in smothering the democratic flame excited by the American Revolution, when

'About the same time was reared in France that fatal Columna Bellica, from which was thrown the burning spear, which has caused such conflagration on earth. The spirit of Ulster innovation became sublimated, and blazed with borrowed violence. The sober Presbyterian drew infection from the boiling cauldron of French atheism, and while the livid fires gleamed on his visage, he could hardly be distinguished from the blood-stained demons, who, with shouts and yells, in uncouth and unseemly garb, were dancing round it. He associated, he united, he armed himself, with gun, and pike, and lance, and appeared resolute to rush on the government he had once so much loved and cherished, and which, whatever might be its faults to Catholics, had always loved and cherished him. But he appeared only. Government did not know him—the Catholic did not know him—perhaps he did not know himself. As long as it was uniting, and writing, and speaking, he took the lead; but when the Rubicon was to be passed, when the final decision was to be taken, when the fatal sword was to be unsheathed—then his moral sense resumed its influence, then the voice of conscience was hearkened to, then his feelings and his prejudices, which were slumbering only, awoke. And when he heard of the rebellion in the South, of its butcheries and murders, its plunderings and burnings, its horrors and devastations, he shrunk dismayed from his colleagues, and sick of politics, sick of innovation and change, wisely reflecting, that as evil is the nature, so it must be ever the portion of man, that every where there must be misery, and that cruelty is the greatest of all misery, he laid down his unnatural weapon, the pike, resumed his natural implement, the shuttle, and returned to his allegiance to government, to which, I trust, it will ever be his inclination, as it is his duty, even when he disapproves of parts of its conduct, to cling. The Catholic now hates him as a renegade, and has no confidence in him.'

'I record with pleasure, that as far as I have been able to learn, the conduct of English and regular officers in the North, during that melancholy period, was, with a few exceptions, humane. As far as was consistent with duty, and sometimes with safety, they endeavoured to restrain the excesses of an undisciplined and ungovernable army, and to check the blind zeal and headlong fury of some of the yeomanry corps, whose passions were inflamed to madness, and whose

prejudices too often were as strong as their judgements were weak. It was almost only when they were not present, or when their authority was disregarded, that any of those acts of brutal and useless cruelty, about which so much has been said, were perpetrated. I think it probable, that more has been said of them than what is true; but making every allowance for the exaggeration of hate and misrepresentation of party, enough still remains almost to put a man out of humour with his nature.'

Genteel society in the north of Ireland is divided into two great classes; the gentry who live on their estates and are generally descendants of English settlers, and the principal linen-merchants and bleachers, who are almost entirely of Scotch descent. The latter are Presbyterians, and are viewed with little kindness by their high-church neighbours, as well on account of the jealousy of newly-acquired wealth as of a marked difference in political feeling. While the loyalty of the gentry is of a romantic and exalted kind, the enthusiasm of the Presbyterians seems to have been directed to republicanism. Yet the doctrine of separation from England was never palatable among the latter.

'The people here, even amidst the wildest frenzy of revolution, still clung to their ancient attachments, and while they listened with cold and reluctant ears to the advantages to be gained by a separation from England, they became animated and exhilarated, when they were told, that they were not to run alone the glorious race of republicanism, but that their English and Scotch brethren were as ready as themselves.'

However alive Mr. Gamble may be to the effects of the bad government of Ireland in former days, he always expresses his dissatisfaction in temperate language; and he deprecates (p.46.) a recurrence to insurrection, as replete with evils infinitely greater than those of which the inhabitants had cause to complain. Recent arrangements are, we hope, calculated to heal the wounds of former impolicy, and to improve the growing disposition in our favour.

'I am pleased,' Mr. G. says, 'to remark, that considerable alteration has taken place in public opinion, on the subject of the Union. I am convinced hardly a Protestant out of Dublin wishes for the repeal of it, nor have I conversed even with one person in this part of the kingdom, who regrets the absence of the Irish parliament, except on account of the money it spent in the country.'—

'On the importance of Ireland to England, it is unnecessary to dwell. England does not produce food enough for the consumption of her inhabitants; she could neither victual her army nor navy, without the assistance of Ireland; she could not even have so large an army or navy to eat these victuals without her assistance; with the progress of commerce and luxury, she has become effeminate; it is never the virtuous part of

of manufacturers, but the vicious, therefore, the idle and unemployed, that enlist in England. It is in Ireland, therefore, that she must look for her army. The population is immense, ill fed, and ill clad; an Englishman in the army leads a life of hardship and want; an Irishman, a life of luxury and ease; his early habits enable him to live upon little, and the hardihood of his frame bears fatigue, that would kill many Englishmen; he passes whole days without nourishment, apparently regardless of heat, or cold, or hunger, or thirst. It is asserted, that one-third of the army and navy are Irishmen. I have no means of ascertaining the truth or falsity of this; but of this I am certain, did the Catholic gentry and clergy exert themselves among the people, there would be ten soldiers or sailors for one who goes at present; were the feelings of national or religious interest embodied with those, (whatever they may be,) which now operate, how powerful would be the effect, and how easily could the coarse, but energetic, encephalon of the Irish clergy raise up an army (like the fabled men of Cadmus of old,) in the course of a single night.'

Mr. Gamble having received a medical education, as we mentioned in our former article, he has taken occasion to introduce various remarks on the climate of Ireland. The frequency of rain gives to an Englishman, in some degree, the impression of dreariness: but a point of more serious consideration is the prevalence of consumptions, in this otherwise healthy country. Mr. G. is disposed to attribute it to the unfortunate fashion among the females, of going too lightly clad for the variableness and dampness of the climate, and he thinks that a law to compel the inhabitants to adopt the use of flannel would be a very proper exercise of legislative authority. He is friendly too, like his brother traveller Dr. Clarke, to the use of the warm bath; since the practice of keeping the surface of the body in a clean and therefore in a perspirable state appears to him likely to prevent many of the bad effects of indolence, intemperance, and coarse diet. In Ireland, however, as in all countries in a cool latitude, frequent exercise in the open air is, for most constitutions, the true panacea:

'Linen is purchased in its brown state by the bleachers. They have men employed for this purpose, who attend at fairs and markets. They have in general a salary of one hundred a-year each, and a small allowance for keeping a horse. The fatigue these men undergo is extraordinary — some of them ride upwards of four thousand miles in the course of a year, which, considering the storm and severity of an Irish winter, is equivalent to six thousand in many other countries. In their robust frames and florid countenances, we perceive the favourable and benign influence of the open air on man, and how infinitely the advantage of almost constant exposure to it, counterbalances the slight inconveniences of cold and rain. A habit of riding in all weathers is, I am persuaded, the most effectual means of strengthening the frame, and I should recommend every delicate person, whose

avocations will permit it, (to make use of the words of Dr. Fuller,) to learn like a Tartar to live on horseback, by which means he will acquire in time the constitution of a Tartar. I have known several instances of young men, who appeared to have the strongest predisposition to consumption, and who, had they been put to sedentary employments, would, in all human probability, have lived a very short time, by the healthful fatigue of even severe riding, and long journies, become stout and vigorous men. The late Doctor Rush, of Philadelphia, in one of his essays, mentions two cures of consumption in a similar manner.—

‘ The son of a farmer in New Jersey was sent to sea as the last resource for a consumption. Soon after he left the American shore, he was taken by a British cruiser, and compelled to share in all the duties and hardships of a common sailor. After serving in this capacity for twenty-two months, he made his escape, and landed at Boston, from whence he travelled on foot to his father’s house, (nearly four hundred miles,) where he arrived in perfect health.

‘ In travelling through New England, Dr. Franklin overtook the post-rider, — and after some inquiries into the history of his life, he informed him that he was bred a shoe-maker — that his confinement, and other circumstances, had brought on a consumption, for which he was ordered, by a physician, to ride on horseback. Finding this mode of exercise too expensive, he made interest, upon the death of an old post-rider, to succeed to his appointment, in which he perfectly recovered his health in two years. After this he returned to his old trade, upon which his consumption returned. He again mounted his horse, and rode post, in all seasons and weathers, between New York and Connecticut river, (about one hundred and forty miles,) in which employment he continued upwards of thirty years in perfect health.’—

‘ I have often had occasion to mention an Irish breakfast — I shall notice it again for the last time. I had to-day a most delicious one — rich cream and butter, cakes of various descriptions — honey, too, an invaluable sweet, of which it is astonishing that use is not more frequently made — preserved strawberries, and, in short, every article of a Scotch breakfast, except marmalade. How preferable was this innocent and pastoral meal to the (I must say) brutal custom now so prevalent in England, of bringing flesh meat to the breakfast table : — the use of flesh meat in the morning injures essentially, and almost immediately, the breath and teeth. It likewise considerably quickens the pulse, rekindling instantly the fever which sleep has extinguished, and when the frame, soft, relaxed, opening in the morning of day, as in the morning of life, demands mild and bland food, it wears and irritates it by the strength of its stimulus.’

In a different part of the book, Mr. Gamble draws a kind of parallel between the English manufacturer and the Irish peasant. Though the one appears in the possession of many comforts, and the other seems immersed in wretchedness, the superior health of the peasant will be found a counterpoise to many disadvantages. The enjoyment of this blessing he owes to two things — the

— the habit of working out of doors, and the nature of his food:

‘ Milk and vegetable diet, not only mend his heart and humanize his disposition, but give him, if not better health, at least longer life. Animal food is a much higher stimulus than vegetable. It quickens the circulation much more, and sooner wears out the powers of life. The lamp burns the brighter, perhaps, (and only perhaps,) but it burns the quicker. I have felt the pulses of a number of English and Irish peasants, and have always found those of the latter slower than those of the former.’

The author describes the Catholic gentry (p. 28.) as much more united than the Protestants, in familiar and affectionate intercourse with their humble dependents. He has, at the same time, a very proper sense of the imprudent lengths to which the Catholic leaders have occasionally gone, in their resolutions at public meetings; and while he acquits them wholly of revolutionary designs, he considers such language as highly dangerous when addressed to a body of men labouring under a deep impression of former wrongs and recent insults. The Catholics have long deemed themselves an oppressed and degraded part of the community; and they cherish a rooted hatred to those members of government whom they regard as instrumental in continuing their political disabilities. A part of these unfavourable impressions, Mr. G. thinks, may be removed by the recent measure of the interchange of the militia: which will have the effect of making the two countries better known to each other; of lessening prejudice; and perhaps of awakening feelings of mutual kindness:

‘ I hope the conduct of the Irish militia in England will be such as to leave favourable impressions of their country behind them. It is the more likely to be so, as they are commanded by their own country officers, who understand their nature, and can better manage them than Englishmen can possibly do. Irish nature requires a vigorous, but a flowing rein. English system, which is well adapted to English nature, only makes it restive and violent, and, while it provokes its mettle, does not increase its speed. The conduct of the English militia in Ireland, as far as I have had an opportunity of knowing, has been in the highest degree correct and exemplary. They have displayed a gentleness of demeanour, and disposition to conciliation, not more honourable to themselves, than creditable to their officers.’

In the course of his travels, Mr. Gamble passed some time in the diocese of Derry, (Londonderry,) and heard in all quarters a favourable testimony to the character of the Bishop: whose income is said to amount to 18,000*l.* a-year; a sum which, in the north of Ireland, is equal to 30,000*l.* in the south of England. Our readers may recollect a paragraph which found its way a few years ago into the news-papers, and ridiculed his

Lordship

Lordship as a partner in a manufactory and as a bankrupt. The libel became the subject of judicial investigation, and was proved to have no farther foundation than the failure of one of those establishments, in the wilder part of the diocese, to which the Bishop is in the habit of making loans of money at moderate interest, for the purpose of giving employment to the wretched inhabitants of the neighbourhood. In the same part of Ireland, are the estates of the Marquis of Abercorn; who makes it a positive rule to prohibit his tenants from going to law with each other, and insists that they shall accommodate their differences by appealing to a more speedy and less expensive tribunal. He is said to appropriate a considerable part of his own time to the adjustment of differences of this description.

On comparing the present volume with its predecessor, we perceive a considerable improvement in the exclusion of common-place quotations and abrupt transitions. We were struck, however, with a trespass of the latter kind at p. 208., which must offend every reader who is affected by the narrative that precedes it. In defence of these inequalities, Mr. G. pleads, (pref. p. 6.) that he 'describes incidents as they arise, and that nature herself writes tragi-comedy.' An apology of this nature cannot avail him with regard to another kind of transgression: we mean a diffuse explanation of a familiar practice, such as (p. 191.) the art of spinning, the origin of which he mentions, with all imaginable gravity, as being traced to the descendants of Phœnician colonists. It may be farther objected that his episodes are sometimes of too great length: but we found ourselves so much interested in the several narratives, as to think little of the space which they are allowed to occupy. On the whole, if the former volume may be said, from priority in describing the same subjects, to make a stronger impression on the reader, the present will be found to possess many claims to the praise of animation, and to be less frequently open to animadversion on the ground of irregularity of composition.

ART. III. *An Economical History of the Hebrides and Highlands of Scotland.* By John Walker, D.D., late Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 805. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

WE had occasion to mention, in our report of the life of Lord Kaimes, (Vol. lxi., p. 94.) that Scotland, among many other obligations, was indebted to that indefatigable Judge for the proposition of a survey of the Hebrides; and Dr. Walker, a clergyman of the church of Scotland, and afterward professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh, was the person

person recommended by his Lordship to perform that task. In the prosecution of his mission, the Doctor accomplished six journeys to the Hebrides, between 1760 and 1786; two of which, we are informed, were particularly extensive, having continued from May to December in each year. He acted, on these occasions, in the double capacity of Delegate from the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland and from the Commissioners of the forfeited Estates; being deputed by the former to investigate the state of religious instruction, and by the latter to collect information on objects of natural history and statistics. His reports to the General Assembly have been preserved in their Records: but his communications to the Commissioners of Estates, forming a large folio volume, have, by some unaccountable negligence, in London or Edinburgh, been lost or mislaid; and no accurate copy of them having been left, it is from his other papers that the present volumes have been put together. They are ushered in by a dedication from Dr. Walker's executors to the Highland Society, but without any notice of the method pursued in compiling them, or any apology for the delay of publication, although eight years have elapsed since Dr. W.'s death, and more than twenty since the cessation of his labours on subjects connected with the Hebrides. We shall express an opinion on the manner in which the task of publication has been managed, after we have presented our readers with an abstract of some of the most interesting topics in the work. It contains a minute account of the different tenures of land in the Hebrides and Highlands; of the condition of the inhabitants; of the state of tillage and pasture; of the extension of sheep-farming and the progress of planting. Under the head of police, a statement is given of certain public regulations as to schools, roads, mechanical employments, conveyance of merchandise, &c. We shall direct our attention, in the first instance, to the climate and state of the population.

The climate of the Hebrides, in consequence of the vicinity of the sea on all sides, is exempt from intense or continued frosts. Snow never lies long, and potatoes may be kept during a whole winter in the ground without injury, though protected only by a slight covering of fern. If, however, the keen blasts of the east are here little known, the west wind and its frequent accompaniment, rain, give rise to loud complaints, especially in autumn, when the labours of the husbandman are about to receive their reward. It follows, therefore, that, though not unfit for the production of grain, the climate of the Hebrides and West Highlands is much better adapted for turnips and other green crops. This observation is applicable to the country extending all the way from the Clyde to Cape Wrath,

Wrath, at the northern extremity of Scotland, a distance of nearly 300 miles; throughout the whole of which, whether islands or main-land, the climate is remarkably similar. Taking the whole of the Hebridian islands, we find that their number, great and small, amounts to ninety-five; forming, in all their extent, a surface probably of two millions of English acres: of which, however, a very small proportion is arable, as is but too apparent from their scanty population. Yet small as is this population, it is gratifying to observe its progressive increase. In the year 1750 the population of the ninety-five inhabited islands of the Hebrides appears to have been 49,500

In 1755 (by Dr. Webster's enumeration) 52,200

In 1771 nearly - - - 63,000

In 1795 (Statistical Survey) - - - 75,000

Among the causes of the favourable progress in late years, we may reckon the introduction of the culture of potatoes and of the manufacture of kelp, the latter of which affords to the industrious an employment formerly unknown: but the great cause of increasing numbers in the Hebrides is to be sought in the adoption of the practice of inoculation. Here, as in all countries in which the inhabitants live much on fish and other animal-food, the epidemic diseases of children prove fatal in an unusual degree. The havock made in former ages by the small-pox was dreadful; and so backward was this remote quarter in useful knowledge, that only within this half century has inoculation been introduced. When once made known, however, it encountered no obstacles from superstitious terrors; for the Hebrideans, being strangers, like the Highlanders, to the notions falsely deduced from some tenets of our religion, no sooner saw the happy effects of the practice than they embraced it with the utmost thankfulness. They knew too well what their families and their country had suffered from the malady in its natural state, to hesitate in adopting the proffered relief. The existence of this scourge accounts for the slow progress of population in the Hebrides in former ages; and in fact a cause of powerful operation was requisite to explain the singular contrast between the stationary numbers in the early part of the last century and the late rapidity of their increase. It deserves attention that emigration has been greatest within the last sixty years, and that the above-mentioned augmentation is exclusive of a multitude who have left their home for Ireland and America, as well as for our sea and land-service.

On turning to the population-accounts of the Highlands on the main-land, we find the progressive increase much smaller. The parishes in the islands are thirty-two in number; while the highland parishes on the main-land, embracing the whole range

of country in which the Gaelic language is spoken, amount to one hundred and thirty. In this wide tract, forming in superficial extent the half of Scotland, but in general miserably barren, the population was

By Dr. Webster's enumeration in 1755 - 237,000

By the Statistical Reports in 1795 - 250,000,

giving an increase, in forty years, of only 13,000. No doubt, the actual augmentation during that time has been much greater; but, in addition to the demands from our army, the rapid and unprecedented extension of sheep-farming has been productive of still greater emigration than in the Hebrides. No people are more strongly attached to the paternal soil than the Highlanders, and no ordinary cause would have been sufficient to drive them from it: but the conversion of farms from the pasturage of horned cattle to that of sheep makes a remarkable diminution in the extent of employment for the inhabitants of a country; the former requiring the attendance of many hands for the dairy as well as for other purposes, while the sheep-farmer, with a few servants, can live and become rich in the midst of a desert. It was evident, says Dr. Walker, that, half a century ago, a quantity of pasture situated on such high and rugged ground as to be out of the reach of horned cattle was lost on almost every hill-farm, for want of sheep. Five hundred thousand head of the latter might have been fed on this particular kind of pasture, without diminishing the number of the former; and, had this been the only change, the production of sheep might have promoted instead of reducing the population of the Highlands: but no such limit was observed; sheep have been substituted in immense numbers for horned cattle; and no alternative but emigration has been left to a proportion of the inhabitants. We must add also the unwelcome accompaniment of a considerable rise of rent; which, howsoever justified by the example of the low-lands, was new and sudden to the hereditary tacksman of the Highlands. Though the majority of the refugees repaired to North America, yet, in some cases, the mother-country was enabled to retain these frugal and hardy sons of the mountains. A colony of Highlanders settled at Blair Drummond, Lord Kaim's Perthshire estate, and have afforded an ample proof of the great exertion of which this class of men is capable under judicious and equitable regulations.

If we compare the relative lists of parish-population in the years 1755 and 1795, we find that, generally speaking, the loss by emigration has been greatest in the parishes bordering on the low country. Had it not been for this formidable drain, no part of the kingdom would have increased its inhabitants

more

more rapidly than the Highlands. The climate is healthy, the sustenance of the people is simple, and their habits are favourable to early marriage. An abundance of fish along the coast and inlets of the sea compensates, in some degree, for the scanty product of their hills, while the maladies engendered in large towns are unknown. In estimating the population of England, it is common to assign the average of $4\frac{1}{2}$ persons to the families of country-parishes, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ to the families of manufacturing towns: but in the Highlands and Hebrides 5 or $5\frac{1}{2}$ to a family are a safe allowance. In the war of 1756, government first began to draw effectual assistance to our army and navy from this remote quarter; and it seems no exaggeration to set down the proportion sent forth during that war by the Hebrides at one-fifth of its able-bodied inhabitants; six hundred seamen and two thousand five hundred soldiers appearing to have entered the service. On the main-land, the recruits were almost all for the army. The returns have not been kept with accuracy throughout: but, on turning to Lochaber, which deserves the appellation of the "heart of the Highlands," we find that of this warlike race not fewer than a third of the able-bodied men repaired to the standards of their sovereign.

The occupants of land in the Highlands are, or rather were, of three different kinds, — tacksmen, tenants, and sub-tenants. The tacksmen are generally relations of the proprietor, and rented farms from 30*l.* to 80*l.* or 100*l.* a-year; the tenants are the lessees of smaller farms; and the sub-tenants, similar to the cottars (cottagers) in the low country, cultivate land to the value of a few pounds annually, let to them by the tacksmen. This practice of sub-setting is gradually wearing out, and these humble occupants are arriving at the possession of larger tenures taken directly from the proprietor. Half a century ago the re-letting of land, in minute sub-divisions, was so general that a sub-tenant was re-allowed for every four pounds of rent paid by a tacksman: but as these minor lessees were, both in the Highlands and Hebrides, tenants at will, we need not wonder that their agricultural habits were and still are extremely backward. Without the command of wood or iron, and uninstructed in mechanics, their implements of husbandry are in general extremely defective, and the labour both of men and horses is prodigally thrown away. In many parts, the old highland plough is still in use; a feeble instrument, four feet and a half long, with a single stilt or handle, yet so awkwardly made, in the socle and coulter, as to require four horses to draw and three men to attend it. The different kinds of grain raised in the Hebrides are oats, rye, and bere, or

four-rowed barley: but the quality, as may naturally be concluded, is very inferior. The increase in the case of barley is six or seven times the quantity of the seed; in oats, and rye, only four times. — In pasturage, the inhabitants, favoured by a humid climate, have been more successful, though they have still much to learn ere they can turn it to the best account. The grass at the bottom and on the elevation of a hill is so different, that to use them indiscriminately is to lose, in a great measure, the profit of both. The early grasses, which rise and decay during summer, are often to be found (says Dr. Walker) on the same farm with that which affords effectual support to cattle through the whole year. Yet the Highlanders have hitherto attended very little to the propriety of reserving the more late and hardy pasturage for winter. Confining their superintendence to their cows, for the sake of the milk, they allow the barren cattle to traverse every part of the farm at will; and so far does this carelessness extend that, in many places, the calves are not prevented from ranging, during the early part of summer, through the fields of corn.

A great obstacle, in former days, to the increase of the stock of sheep in the Highlands was the havoc occasioned by the Fox. Finding refuge in almost inaccessible holds, these animals were bolder and stronger than the foxes of the low-lands; and no precautions having been taken against them till the middle of the last century, it was not unusual for a farmer to lose half his lambs before Christmas: a prospect which induced him to keep no more sheep than were necessary for his own family. In the year 1764, the gentlemen of the Isle of Skye offered a premium of three shillings a-head for the destruction of foxes; and in the course of the ensuing year 112 of those animals were destroyed in a single district. A perseverance in the same plan has gradually reduced the swarms of these depredators, and in many parts the fox is now no longer formidable. Sheep-farming has, in consequence, been extended fully as far as it is advisable, in Dr. Walker's opinion; and, impressed with the belief that sheep have been too generally substituted for horned cattle, he takes pains to state (Vol. ii. p. 150.) several arguments against the policy of continuing this course. Severe winters, which are comparatively but little injurious to the larger cattle, may prove almost ruinous to a stock of sheep; and, with reference to a distant market, the driving of the former is the much easier task.

The goat is a very antient inhabitant of the Highlands; and no animal is fitter to endure the extremes of heat and cold, or to extract his subsistence from a wild and mountainous country. On the most stormy hills, he needs no housing, no shelter, no artificial

artificial provender. Lodging at night in secure and inaccessible retreats, he was safe from the ravages of the fox; and he formed, till within these forty years, a greater proportion of the highland farmer's stock than the sheep. Though the less profitable of the two for the purpose of exportation, he is not of inferior value for home-use. His tallow is equal to that of the sheep; his skin brings a better price, especially when dressed with the hair, to make knapsacks and holsters; and his carcase in the Highlands is nearly equal to that of the sheep. To a limited extent, therefore, the rearing of the goat is still advisable: but it is necessary, above all things, to beware of having him in the neighbourhood of young plantations or natural coppices. He is a browsing rather than a grazing animal, and crops unmercifully the young shoots of every tree and shrub: while stonedikes, the ordinary fence for a plantation or coppice, afford no security against his bold and destructive ravages.

Besides the fox, the Eagle in the Highlands is said to be a formidable enemy to the sheep-farmer. These birds abound greatly, and are of four different species; the golden eagle, the ring-tail eagle, the black eagle, and the erne or fawn-killer, which is the most numerous of any, and the largest bird of prey in Europe. These formidable animals not only kill and feed on lambs, as well as on the fawn of the stag and roe, but the erne has strength even to carry them off when they are under four or five weeks old. The Commissioners of the forfeited estates having employed persons to destroy the eagles on those properties, the feet of the birds that were shot, and which were all full grown, were packed up and sent to Edinburgh to secure the premium; and, limited as was that extent of ground, the number killed was so great as to shew that the injury sustained by the sheep-farmers from the eagle must be very material. The period at which the Highlands were most exposed to suffer from foxes and birds of prey was between 1745 and 1765; the rebellion of the former year having produced the disarming act, which continued in force during the whole of the interval.

In order to prevent the emigration of those inhabitants of the country who were thrown out of employment by the extension of sheep farms, villages have been projected for their reception: but the formation of a highland village is no easy task, and serves, by its difficulty, to illustrate the peculiar state of society in that region. In a thinly peopled tract, each family is accustomed to provide every thing within itself; and, as few situations in the Highlands offer steady employment to the day-labourer or mechanic who wishes to follow a separate branch, these families can ill afford to relinquish their old practice.

practice. To persons thus situated, it is not enough to offer the accommodation of a house: an allotment of land should be added, at a rent which, for a series of years, ought to be merely nominal. If we examine the customs even of the long-settled highland villages, such as Inverary, Oban, Fort William, Fort Augustus, and Stornoway, we shall still find an adherence to the antient habit of supplying at home the things which are most essential for personal convenience. In founding new villages in the Highlands, the principal point is vicinity to a fishing station, and to a supply of fuel from a peat-moss. The former is, in this country, an accommodation of very frequent occurrence, and it is to improved regulations in the fishery that we are to look for those advantages which may form a counter-poise to the evils that impel the inhabitants to emigrate. Slow indeed must have been the progress of our government in the modification of our fishery-laws, when we find that it is in the districts calculated to extract abundant nourishment from the sea that the principal emigrations to America have taken place.

The access to fuel occurs more rarely than the supplies of fish, but a new resource of this description might be found in the extension of planting. That sea-air is prejudicial to the growth of trees is an erroneous notion, however generally adopted: it is exposure to the wind, whether blowing from land or water, that checks the vegetation of the tender shoot; and in land-locked bays and arms of the sea, the growth of trees, even by the water-side, is as fresh and vigorous as in other places. It is neglect, therefore, and not any natural obstacles, that has rendered the Hebrides and many districts of the Highlands bare of wood; a deficiency which is productive of incalculable inconvenience to the inhabitants, with regard to building and instruments of labour as well as to fuel. In some of the islands, scarcely a tree or shrub is to be seen, and timber is often to be fetched from a great distance in open boats: so that the occurrence of a shipwreck affords a very welcome supply of timber; though in no part of the world is greater humanity shewn to unfortunate mariners. This scarcity of wood is the more provoking, because tracts of land fit for bearing trees, and scarcely fit for any thing else, abound in the Highlands and islands. The great demand for timber throughout England in the present age has produced, at last, that recourse to extensive planting, of which it would have been well for us that our forefathers had felt the expediency at an earlier epoch. — While on the subject of timber, Dr. Walker takes the opportunity of explaining the origin and progress of modern planting in Scotland; the rules for pruning

and otherwise taking care of trees; and the comparative durability of those of different sorts. The last object is in most cases best promoted by keeping timber dry; nothing being so destructive as alternate changes from dryness to moisture. Oak, though the most durable ship-timber that is afforded by the climate of Europe, becomes much decayed on the surface after a navigation of thirty or forty years; though, when kept dry on shore, as furniture or part of a building, or when perpetually submerged, it has been found to last for centuries. Even the black poplar, though not accounted a durable wood, has been known, when kept dry, to remain sound and useful above one hundred years; and various woods are of long duration when kept constantly under water. Willow-timber is well known to be fittest for mill machinery; and alder was preferred by the Romans for water-pipes, or for stakes driven into marshy grounds. An extraordinary flood of the Tweed at Peebles having laid open the lower beams of the dam-head, they were found quite entire and fresh, though probably two or three hundred years old.

As to the backwardness of the Hebrides and West Highlands in planting, it will less surprize us when we become aware of their tardy progress in other respects. Until 1756, not a single post-office was known throughout this extensive track of islands and main-land: but in that year the establishment of one at Stornoway in the Isle of Lewes took place, and was followed by another in the Isle of Skye. In 1767 a post-office was erected for the Sound of Ila; and, in 1772, another was formed at Appin. Since that time, farther establishments have been made; and highly necessary they were, both for the benefit of the fishery and of the ships which pass and repass from the west coast of our island to Norway and the Baltic. Humanity also called for the means of affording to the relatives of our military defenders, who were enlisted in the Highlands, the gratification of regular intelligence. As population increases, it is to be hoped that fairs and markets will be established in the Highlands and islands, since, in the present difficulty of accomplishing the sale or purchase of goods, the mechanics, manufacturers, and fishers must all, in some degree, be farmers: a sure way of lessening their utility in other lines. The principal articles exported from the Highlands and islands of Scotland are horned cattle, horses, sheep, hides, wool, skins, tallow, kelp, herrings, fish oil, and yarn. The articles of import are or should be seed-corn, lin-seed, garden and grass-seeds, farming utensils, salt, staves, fishing tackle, cordage, clothing, hardware, dye-stuffs, and groceries.

Another example of the rude customs of the Highlands is to be found in the use of what is called "*gradan bread*," a homely

homely substitute for bread manufactured from flour. To make "gradan bread," a quantity of corn (oats or barley) in the straw is set on fire; and the grain, being thus sufficiently dried or parched for grinding, is gathered up, sifted, and cleaned. It is then committed to the quern, a hand corn-mill, by which it is immediately reduced to meal, and made ready for use. The taste of this bread is by no means unsavoury; on the contrary, both Highlanders and strangers are disposed to prefer it to bread made in the ordinary way: but the waste of corn, and still more of straw, is a powerful objection to this method, and should be considered as of sufficient weight to authorize its prohibition, particularly since the erection of water-mills has become almost general. In those of the islands in which, from want of water or other causes, no large corn-mills are established, a small one, driven by a single horse, will be found an useful substitute, and would be greatly preferable to the quern or hand-mill; which, in size and shape, exactly corresponds with that which the Romans were accustomed to take with them to the field, where they prepared their grain in the simple form of "gradan bread." Dr. Walker directs our attention also to the aptitude of Scotch granite for mill-stones. Those who have been in the habit of reading the orders and counter-orders of our Board of Trade will have observed occasional permissions to import from France two articles apparently very different, "grain and burr-stones." The *birre* is a granite of great durability, and in much repute for mill-stones; though nowise superior, in the present author's opinion, to the granite of Aberdeen, or to that of the lofty mountain of Criffle in Galloway.

The danger of losing valuable land by drifts of moving sand forms a drawback on the value of property in several of the Hebridean islands. The grounds overblown with sand in the island of Coll amount to several thousand acres; and Barra, North and South Uist, and part of Long Island, are exposed to similar visitations. On the east coast of Scotland, these moving sands have been known to do considerable mischief; particularly in the county of Nairn, and in some fertile tracts of Aberdeenshire. To stop the progress of this evil requires considerable labour and attention; as the sand, being kept in motion by every breeze, is never suffered to rest so long as to acquire natural herbage on its surface. The aid of art becomes accordingly indispensable; and to promote the growth of sea-bent was formerly considered, both in Holland and this country, the best expedient for stopping the movement of sand: but the methods hitherto practised have been very insufficient for that purpose, and Dr. Walker has given a list (Vol. i. p. 370. 372.) of various plants much better adapted for it. Part of these would answer

the double purpose of confining the sand and of affording pasture to cattle.

It will be apparent to our readers, from the outline which we have given, that Dr. Walker's book contains a considerable portion of statistical information. We wish we could add that it was worthy of any commendation on the score of arrangement : but the work was posthumous ; and whether the fault lies with the executors or other persons, it has by no means been prepared for the public eye in the way most likely to be conducive to general utility. The composition is loose and diffuse, the classification is defective, and repetitions recur without end. If the whole was edited from notes or detached papers of the deceased author, it would have been no difficult task to have abridged where it was not proper otherwise to alter, and to strike out in one place the remark which had been already made in another. Similar corrections ought to have been applied to that quaint phraseology in which Dr. Walker was sometimes disposed to indulge. Typographical errors, also, are observable much too frequently. — With respect to the matter of the work, one of our principal objections regards a general indistinctness and even inaccuracy as to dates. Things past are described as things present, not intentionally indeed, but from want of a due attention to the difference of epoch. Although the introduction professes that the publication contains the observations in Dr. Walker's six journies from 1764 to 1786, and *whatever has since occurred* concerning the agricultural and economical history of the Hebrides and Highlands, we consider it as highly defective relative to the latter. The present tense is generally used, but we would advise the reader to understand it as applicable to the last age. All these objections affect the editor more than the author ; who, if not intitled to occupy a leading station in the ranks of literature, would in all probability have been careful, had his notes been published during his life, to avoid several of the errors which it has been our duty to point out. — To conclude, this production may be regarded as useful in two respects ; in a topographical light, as a description of the Hebrides thirty or forty years ago ; and in some degree in a more general sense, as containing several instructive passages on the subject of natural history, a department on which Dr. Walker, from his habits as a professor, was qualified to write with advantage.

We made our report of Dr. W.'s *Essays on Natural History* in our lxxth Vol. N. S. p. 351.

ART. IV. *A Narrative of the Campaigns of the Loyal Lusitanian Legion*, under Brigadier General Sir Robert Wilson, Aide-de-camp to His Majesty, and Knight of the Orders of Maria Theresa, and of the Tower and Sword. With some Account of the Military Operations in Spain and Portugal during the Years 1809, 1810, and 1811. 8vo. pp. 346. 9s. Boards. Egerton.

AMID the rapid succession of political and military events in the present age, it has not unfrequently happened that actions of distinguished brilliancy have either been inadequately noticed or too soon forgotten. Such, it is said in the present publication, has been the lot of the Lusitanian Legion; a corps which probably exists in the memory of most of our readers only by transient recollections of news-paper paragraphs. From the circumstance of its organization having preceded the formation of the more general enlistment of Portuguese under Marshal Beresford, its commander, Sir Robert Wilson, appears to have been reluctant to submit to incorporation in the larger mass: while Government, actuated by general views, was unwilling to grant to an individual, however meritorious, a distinction which was likely to be productive of dissatisfaction to others. It has, in consequence, unluckily happened that several officers, who served gallantly in the Legion, consider themselves as neglected, and the present narrative forms a kind of appeal to the public on their part. It has been composed by one of the junior officers, and appears with the concurrence of Colonel Mayne, the second in command of the Legion.

At the end of 1807, when Portugal was occupied by the French under Junot, many Portuguese officers resisted the seducing offers of Bonaparte, and sought refuge in England; and in the following summer, when the general revolt of Spain opened a favourable prospect, it was determined to organize a force of native Portuguese. The first step towards this object was the formation of a corps to be officered partly by British, and partly by the Portuguese gentlemen who had emigrated to England. The Bishop of Oporto, now Patriarch of Portugal, took a zealous share in its establishment: Sir Robert Wilson was placed at its head; and, having landed with his Portuguese comrades at Oporto, he proceeded to levy and equip his corps for service. The recruits were principally from among the hardy peasantry of the north of Portugal, whose zeal made many more offer their services than could be supplied with arms and clothing. The corps consisted of three battalions of light infantry, with some cavalry and artillery, forming together a force of 2000 men, under the name of the Loyal Lusitanian Legion. Sir Robert Wilson, determined to lose no time, set out in the middle of December with half his force towards

Spain. The roads, at all times bad, were in this season nearly impassible, so that the cavalry were frequently obliged to swim their horses: but they had reached the neighbourhood of Almeida, when Bonaparte's rapid progress, and Sir John Moore's retreat, threw a general gloom over the face of affairs. Sir Robert, however, being permitted to use his discretion either to withdraw or remain, determined on the latter, with the concurrence of his officers, and moved forwards to impede, as much as he could, the advance of the French corps proceeding towards Portugal. A principal part of his plan was to conceal the smallness of his force, and to appear to occupy, or at least to traverse, a large tract of country: the consequence of which was that, throughout the campaign, the French paid the Legion the compliment of supposing it to be twice or thrice its real strength: It was dressed in British uniform, and contrived frequently to shew itself in places in which it was least expected. At one point, the dragoons of the corps succeeded in surprising and making prisoners a French outpost; and soon afterward a stronger detachment shewed itself at the town of Ledesma, on the river Tormes, at the critical moment when the French were on the eve of laying it under contribution. The presence of the Legion in this province had the double advantage of collecting the fugitives from Sir John Moore's army, and of restraining the plundering parties of the French. It derived also considerable advantage from the assistance of the Guerrillas; and the peasantry shewed, on all occasions, a warm attachment to it, and an inveterate enmity to the French. Aware of the reluctance with which the foreigners remained in the French service, Sir R. Wilson encouraged them to desert, by distributing hand-bills written in their native language, and offering them the option of being sent home or of entering the British army.

Lord Wellington, having arrived in Portugal in Spring 1809, soon began offensive operations against the French. In the movements consequent on the opening of the campaign, the Legion was attached to General M'Kenzie's corps on the Tagus, and formed the advance at Alcantara, where is a noble Roman bridge, built in the days of Trajan. The town is on the south bank; and the Legion, posted on the north, had to sustain, with the aid of a battery, the defence of the passage during the best part of the day against an advancing army of 11,000 men. This affair took place on the 14th May 1809, the object of the French being to silence the battery, and pass the river speedily; that of the Legion to cause them as much loss as possible. The artillery of the Legion commanded the bridge, and began to play as soon as the enemy came within reach: but the French returned the fire with much effect; the distance

distance being short enough to admit also of a destructive fire of musquetry from both sides. After having stood its ground from morning till afternoon, the Legion was compelled to retire, with the loss of 260 men, but with the satisfaction of injuring the enemy to probably three times that amount. This gallant resistance reflected the greatest credit on the Legion, and on Colonel Mayne, who commanded in Sir Robert Wilson's absence.

The next operations of the Legion were in connection with the movements which led to the battle of Talavera. As the Spaniards had still a numerous army, Lord Wellington was induced to entertain the idea of offensive operations. Combining therefore his movements with those of Cuesta, and unapprized how little dependence he could place on this associate, he advanced towards Talavera, directing Sir Robert Wilson to keep the enemy in alarm by approaching Madrid. Sir Robert came sufficiently near to hold communication with a part of the inhabitants, while the French garrison felt it necessary to concentrate themselves. The city was in a ferment; yet the governor, Beliard, who has so long commanded there, and whose character seems worthy of a better service, had the courage to ride unattended through the streets: intreating the inhabitants to wait the result of the expected battle; and assuring them that, if the allies proved successful, he would give up the city to them. Sir Robert was recalled as soon as the junction of the French troops at Talavera rendered a battle inevitable; and though he returned too late to take a share in that action, he was instrumental in weakening the enemy's efforts by coming within sight in the afternoon of the day, and obliging the French to watch him with a considerable body. After the battle, he re-advanced in the direction of Madrid, having been directed to communicate with General Cuesta: but the latter retired unexpectedly, leaving Sir Robert in the midst of enemies. Here his men had occasion for all their characteristic celerity; and the Tagus opposing their retreat to the south, their only resource was to force their way to the mountains in the west. To the west accordingly they marched, crossing by the way detached parties of the enemy, attacking them when it was necessary to clear a passage, but trusting chiefly for their safety to expedition and knowledge of the country. Having succeeded in putting themselves out of danger, they discovered on the morning of the 12th August a considerable quantity of dust rising on the great road in their rear; and they learned from a peasant, for with the British army they had obtained no communication during a week, that this dust proceeded from the march of a strong body of the enemy. Hoping to impede their progress, or at all events to cause them

a considerable loss, Sir Robert returned; took post in a favourable position in front of the town of Bainôs; and, stationing two companies in ambush, and availing himself of the advantage of the ground, he made an obstinate resistance, killing and wounding a number of the enemy. Towards evening, however, the superior force of the French and their agility in mountain-warfare obliged the Legion to give way, with a loss of 300 or 400 men; that of the enemy being apparently 500 or 600. The action would not have been attempted, had Sir Robert been apprized that the British army had desisted from offensive operations.

This affair at Bainôs was the last exploit of the Legion as a separate corps. Since the spring of the year, an army of Portuguese had been in a course of formation under Marshal Beresford: but Sir Robert Wilson had avoided attaching his corps to it, and had wished to be considered as a part of the British army. The consequence was a coolness, from whose fault we pretend not to decide, between him and Marshal Beresford. With the view of getting the Legion placed on the British establishment, Sir Robert Wilson and Colonel Mayne repaired to London: but government declined to interfere; and neither of these officers returned to the Peninsula. The corps was afterward brought farther into the interior of Portugal, and each battalion was recruited to a thousand men, previously to its incorporation with the rest of the Portuguese. Part of the Legion had a share in the glorious action of Busaco, where they belonged to General Leith's division; and they retreated with Lord Wellington to the lines of Cintra, where their soldier-like appearance attracted his Lordship's observation. In the subsequent action of Fuentes d'Honore, a division of the corps was engaged; and the rest were destined to sustain considerable loss at the siege of Olivenza and the sanguinary struggle of Albuera. In that battle, in which the writer of this volume considers our infantry to have been injudiciously posted, a division of the Lusitanian Legion made, with the Fuzileer brigade, that final charge which retrieved the fortune of the day, and drove the French from the elevated ground which they had gained. Here, as in most charges, it proved that the party attacked did not stand a close encounter with the assailants; a circumstance to which we advert, because ordinary readers are apt to imagine that a charge with the bayonet necessarily, or at least generally, leads to actual contact. In nine cases out of ten, however, it will be found that the column, or line, which has advanced in despite of the havock made in its ranks by the enemy's fire, will strike such terror on its near approach as to awe its opponents into flight. Such, be it remembered, was the case at Maida, at Barrosa, and,
more

more recently, at Salamanca : such also was the case at Albuera, though the French were flushed with previous success, and supported by a formidable artillery. They discharged their musquets on our approaching line with great execution, but, on seeing their persevering antagonists within a few yards of them, they gave way with the greatest precipitation. Dearly, indeed, was the advantage purchased on our part ; for of the 3000 British and Portuguese who marched to this desperate charge, scarcely 1000 remained effective after they had accomplished the rout of the enemy.—Here ends the military narrative, the Lusitanian Legion being henceforwards wholly incorporated with the Portuguese *Caçadores*.

We decline any discussion of the subjects of contention between Marshal Beresford and the commanders of the Legion. On such occasions, it generally happens that faults may be alleged on both sides; and it is always to be lamented when men, substantially allied to each other in patriotism and energy, allow the influence of minor feelings to impair the extent of their exertions for their country.—With regard to the character of this publication as a composition, we cannot help regretting that it was not put on the footing of a plain journal, with a studied attention to perspicuity in dates and positions. A map of the country ought also to have been prefixed ; and, above all, confident and exaggerating language should have been carefully avoided. The young officer, who composed the detail, we presume to be more skilful in conducting an adventurous enterprise than in selecting the circumstances of literary description : but he gives proof of having had the benefit of a liberal education.—To the narrative is prefixed an account of Portugal, and in the notes are introduced brief descriptions of towns situated in the scene of military operations. We extract a few detached passages :

‘ The inhabitants of the northern provinces are esteemed more industrious and sincere than those of the south, who are reckoned more polite and indolent.

‘ In general, the Portuguese are a fine race, with regular features embrowned by the sun, and dark expressive eyes. They are friendly to strangers, particularly to those of the Roman Catholic persuasion*.

‘ The women are of small stature, yet graceful. Ladies of rank still work at the distaff, and the oriental custom of sitting at the doors on cushions is often practised. The peasantry remain miserable vassals of the *fidalgos*, or gentlemen, living on salt-fish and vegetables. In their diet, the Portuguese are abstemious, and the beauty of the climate induces them to live in the open air, the house being merely

* Hence probably the great influence which some Irish officers possess at this moment in the allied armies.’

a convenience to sleep in. The games are billiards, cards, and dice. The common people fence with a quarter staff; but their chief delight is in their bull fights. The arts and sciences are almost entirely neglected, except by a few of the clergy.'— 'Education, too, is much neglected in Portugal.'—

'Almeida is a strong fortification; six royal bastions of stone, and as many ravelins; a good ditch and a covered way. On a lofty mound, in the centre of the town, is a citadel remarkable for strength, with magazines bomb proof; within the walls are wells of water, and near it is a fine spring.

'Ciudad Rodrigo stands on a stone rock on the banks of the Agueda; a large square tower with battlements and loop holes overlooks the bridge, and you enter the fortress with an idea it is a strong place, but it is an irregular fortification, and far otherwise. The streets in the town are very bad and narrow, and there is nothing remarkable but a cathedral which is of tolerable beauty.

'Salamanca, a city famous among the Romans, is chiefly placed on three sand-stone hills in an inlet of the Tormes, a few leagues before it falls into the Douro. There is here a handsome Roman bridge over the Tormes, in the centre of which is a square tower, and a gateway which formerly contained a portcullis; this object and the towers and domes of the buildings of the city form an imposing spectacle. The city is entered from the bridge by a triumphal arch of the Romans, from which the principal street descends. The University of Salamanca long attracted students from every part of Europe; but is now no longer celebrated.'

A memoir of the Bishop of Oporto, and a great variety of official papers, are inserted as matters of appendix, and form two-thirds of the volume.

ART. V. *A Narrative of the Campaign in Russia*, during the Year 1812. By Sir Robert Ker Porter. 4to. pp. 282. with Two Maps, and a Portrait of Prince Koutousoff. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

ART. VI. *Sketch of the Russian Campaign in 1812*. By the Honourable Robert Clifford. Folio Sheet. 7s. 6d. Cary.

ART. VII. *The Retreat of the French*. Translated from a German Pamphlet published at Petersburg. 8vo. pp. 43. Budd. 1813.

THE campaign of 1812 was of so extraordinary a nature, both in itself and in its influence on the state of Europe, that it merits a very minute and attentive relation. Until lately, it was known to the community at large only by news-paper accounts; and though we were sufficiently apprized of its grand outlines, several points remained to be cleared up before a political calculator could pronounce that his mind was satisfied regarding the causes and consequences of some important

occurrences. The public had seen little else than the bulletins on both sides; and greatly superior as the Russians may be to the French in point of veracity, these documents, composed at a time when popular enthusiasm must be sustained, are made to exhibit invariably the fair side of the picture. There are, moreover, a number of private motives and proceedings, which cannot be introduced into a communication that is open to all the world. We have yet to learn the reasons which induced Bonaparte to remain at Moscow till so late a date as the 20th of October; and we are still unapprized whether, in the desperate conflict of Malo Yaroslaven, his intention was to attempt a passage to the south-west, or merely to cover his retreat to Wiasma. A question of more importance is whether it would at any time have been practicable, by any exertion or management, to have made him and his principal officers prisoners; agreeably to the hopes which many of us entertained at the anxious interval during which Smolensko was said to be surrounded, and the passage of the Dnieper commanded by the Russians.

Eager to arrive at a solution of these difficulties, we opened the volume of Sir R. K. Porter, whose residence in Russia would enable him, we imagined, to relate with advantage the memorable events of the campaign. The unusual interest of the subject prepared us to expect that pains would have been taken to exhibit clear and accurate details, and to confirm them by the addition of documents which had not found their way to the public through the channel of news-papers. We had soon, however, the disappointment of discovering that, whatever Sir R. K. Porter's talents may be in painting, he is a total stranger to the duties of an historian. In this costly quarto, we meet, in regard to facts, with little that has not been detailed to all Europe by the medium of daily publications; and the additions consist of effusions on the part of the writer, which are couched in a style of ridiculous exaggeration. We find here no sagacity in tracing the latent objects of Bonaparte's intrigues, or in analyzing the military plans of the Russian commanders; and, like the historian who excused himself *in toto* from the trouble of thinking, this author deals in nothing but ebullitions and apostrophes. For examples, the following passages may be quoted from the second and third pages:

'The machinations of Napoleon have ever been as much against the principles, as the personal liberties of men. Former conquerors were content with subjecting nations by the power of the sword. His aim is a deeper destruction; he attacks the moral principle. He subdues, by seduction, from the rule of law, from the standard of conscience; and having, like the arch fiend, trammelled the souls of his

his captives, he hopes to keep them in perpetual, because desperate, slavery. I need not particularize the objects in Russia, of this his system of mental vassalage : some few, fell victims to his spells, but the many, the worthy of the name of Russians, remained impregnable to the most determined, most wily assaults of his art.'—

'The common disturber of Europe soon learned from his agents in Russia, that it was their opinion the people was not to be corrupted; and that his favourite *system* could not, by any method whatever, be forced upon the ruler of such a people. Napoleon laughed at these representations. A man without honour, believes the integrity of all others *impugnable*. He is a very Proteus in politics. Again and again every subtilty was tried, every temptation offered : but Alexander frowned on the vain art, and repulsed it.

'Napoleon continued to dissemble and to intrigue, for the moment of unfolding his ultimate plans was not yet arrived; and with a semblance of the most ardent friendship, grasping at the most intimate bonds of connection, he essayed to cajole the unsullied faith of the Emperor Alexander. Even while his *serpent-tongue* wove this Machiavellian net, with hands more numerous than those of Briareus, he was secretly preparing the means of subverting the Russian Empire, and establishing upon its ruins and those of Europe a dominion that would command the sovereignty of the world.'

In former days, when Bonaparte appeared a wonderful hero in the eyes of Sir R. K. Porter, and the battle of Lodi was accounted a fit object for exhibition in the British metropolis, we were struck with the bold inaccuracy of the painter; who, if our memory does not deceive us, placed the French General Ferino on the bridge of Lodi, at the time when he was fighting valiantly under Moreau at the distance of 400 miles. With equal accuracy, we are told, in the present table of contents, of the death of Marshal Oudinot; who, however, has found means to make a resurrection, and has already borne á conspicuous part in the sanguinary conflicts of the present campaign. In some places, such as in the account of the battle of Borodino, Sir R. K. P. condescends to state circumstances in plain language for a few pages : but he seems always impatient to fly off to his favourite region of metaphor and amplification; and, since neither his knowledge nor his genius is equal to these flights, we have the mortification of meeting with many woeful specimens of *batbas* and common-place.

If, therefore, a reader flatters himself that this volume will present him with new and important facts relating to this eventful campaign, he will experience a grievous disappointment. The unparalleled horrors of the retreat are indeed depicted in glowing colours, and must appal the mind of every person who has either feeling or comprehension : but, on the whole, the most that can be said in favour of the work is that it exhibits, in a connected view, more circumstances than have hitherto been put together

together in any single publication: but to glean the knowledge which this collection affords, it is necessary to wade not only through *verbiage*, but through a variety of errors which evidently shew that the author is a stranger to military combinations. Bonaparte was always noted for his activity in *espionage*; yet Sir R. K. Porter seriously believes that, for many days after the battle of Borodino, and his entrance into Moscow, the French Emperor was ignorant of the march of the Russian army. He says, 'The French army, after having lost sight of the Russian force (a body of 150,000 men!) for many days, at length, to their astonishment, found it close to their rear, and made the discovery at the very time when their advanced parties were rambling about at a considerable distance, in search of it.'

The appendix contains a few public papers, of which the principal are French bulletins: but they have been allowed to pass through the press in the most careless manner, and are in their present state almost unintelligible. Two good maps of Bonaparte's advance and retreat are prefixed: but as to intercepted documents, we find none, except the few letters which appeared at the time in the news-papers.

We may now advert to the 'Sketch of the Campaign' advertized under the name of the Honourable Robert Clifford. This is merely a folio sheet, of which the upper half contains a map or draught of Bonaparte's movements, while the lower half consists of a brief journal of the operations. Small as this sketch is, it gives the reader a much more accurate view of the succession of events than he will easily be able to obtain from the pompous narrative of Sir R. K. Porter. We meet here with no exaggerating effusions: the situation of the French headquarters, on each particular day, are distinctly specified, and a notice of each important event is added in a few words. The French bulletins have been made to supply the dates of the occupancy of particular positions, while the computations of killed, wounded, and prisoners, have been drawn from a less suspicious source. — Our only objection to this publication relates to the improper mode in which it has been advertized; the public being induced to consider as a book that which is nothing more than a chart with explanatory notes.

The tract intitled the 'Retreat of the French' is a brief notice of the leading events that occurred in the course of this disastrous operation. It divides Bonaparte's retrograde march into three periods; first, from Moscow to Krasnoi; secondly, from Krasnoi to the river Beresina; thirdly, from the Beresina to Kowno and the Prussian frontier. After having exhibited an impressive picture of the frightful havoc in the French army in the first period of the retreat, the writer remarks (p. 29.), that

that at Krasnoi, in the middle of November, circumstances assumed, for a time, an appearance less unfavourable to those troops: they were now entering on a line of magazines, and Kutusoff's advance had been unavoidably delayed by the actions with Davoust and Ney: they were drawing near, likewise, to the comparatively fresh corps of Oudinot and Victor. — Here we find an explanation of the means of Bonaparte's escape, at the time when, to judge from news-paper reports, his own surrender and that of his army appeared a matter of course. It had been asserted by sanguine persons that a body of Cossacks, detached before the main Russian army, had destroyed the magazines beyond Smolensko; and that Witgenstein, having taken the post of Orscha, was enabled to command the passage of the Dnieper. The fact, however, was that Witgenstein, skilful as were his combinations, could not venture to attack Victor, nor to do more with regard to Bonaparte than keep on his flank, and force him to an encounter with Tchitchagoff. This conduct led to the obstinate conflicts near the Beresina, the bridges on which had been destroyed by the Russians. By making great sacrifices of human lives, Bonaparte succeeded in getting two new bridges thrown over, and in carrying 40,000 men across on the 26th and 27th November. It would be difficult to describe the confusion and terror which prevailed; cavalry, infantry, artillery, all struggling to pass over first, while the weaker were forced into the river or trampled under foot by the stronger, whose progress they impeded. On the latter day, Witgenstein attacked the rear-guard; and, after a bloody action, he forced a corps of 7000 men to lay down their arms. Of the 40,000 who passed, a part (perhaps the half) was the miserable remnant of the host which had penetrated into Russia, and the other part consisted of the less exhausted followers of Oudinot, Dombrowski, and Victor. On the 28th, Tchitchagoff attacked the army that had passed, near the town of Zembin, and pursued it to the eastward. From this time forwards, the retreat became an absolute rout, the French flying at the mere cry of Cossacks, and perishing every night in great numbers from the extremity of the weather. At Molodechno, on the third December, said the French bulletin, "the army met the first convoys from Wilna;" that is, it was joined by some fresh troops sent forwards for the purpose of being sacrificed in insuring Bonaparte's escape. A similar fate befell the division of Loison, which had arrived from Königsberg, and was sent to Ozimana. At Wilna, and at Kowno, many thousand invalids were left behind; and the troops that escaped over the Niemen appear to have been merely those which were stationed along the latter part of the road. The army which had been in Russia, and even the

the divisions of Victor and Oudinot, seem all to have perished, or to have been made prisoners; with the exception of the superior officers, who escaped by availing themselves of the remnant of the horses that were in a serviceable state. Dreadful is the picture; and impressive ought to be the lesson which it conveys!

ART. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year 1812. Parts I. and II. 4to. 17s. 6d. each, sewed. Nicol and Son:*

PHYSIOLOGICAL and CHEMICAL PAPERS in Part I.

AN Account of some Peculiarities in the Structure of the Organ of Hearing, in the Balena Mysticetus of Linnaeus. By EV. HOME, Esq., F.R.S. — Our readers will recollect that the author (now Sir Everard Home, Bart.) gave an account some time ago of the comparative anatomy of the ear of the elephant. As the *balena mysticetus*, the animal from which whale-bone is obtained, possesses this organ of very great size, he was anxious to procure the means of examining its structure; and this opportunity having at length occurred, he has now given the result of his investigation. The structure of the tympanum in this species of whale differs essentially from that of the elephant, in which the central part is tendinous; while in the whale the tympanum seems to consist of one regular muscle, which is composed of fibres that have their origin at one side of the bone, and stretch over to the opposite side. The greatest peculiarity, however, in the ear of this whale, depends on the situation of the small bones, or ossicles, with respect to the tympanum; since, instead of being placed in the adjoining cavity, these ossicles are lodged in a hollow bone, which is imbedded in a mass of fat, and is surrounded by the petrous part of the temporal bone. The connection between the tympanum and the malleus is formed by a membrane which is stretched across the cavity of the tympanum, having one edge in contact with this part, and the other extremity reaching to the shorter handle of the malleus. The description is, as usual, illustrated with plates, which are apparently correct and expressive.

Chemical Researches on the Blood, and some other Animal Fluids. By W. T. Brande, Esq., F.R.S. Communicated to the Society for the Improvement of Animal Chemistry, and by them to the Royal Society. — The principal object of this paper is to ascertain the nature of the colouring matter in the blood, but the author gives also the results of some experiments which he had an opportunity of making on chyle and lymph. The former

mer of these fluids, as procured from the thoracic duct a few hours after the animal had taken a plentiful supply of food, was found to be without colour or odour, to possess a saltish and sweetish taste, and to be very slightly alkaline. In about ten minutes after it had been removed from the duct, it concreted; and after some hours it separated into two distinct parts, one solid and the other fluid: the solid part nearly resembling the caseous matter of milk, and the fluid consisting chiefly of water, holding in solution a little albumen, with a minute quantity of some saline substances. The lymph appears to consist of little else than water.

The coloring matter was obtained by agitating the coagulum so as to diffuse the red particles through the serum, from which they afterward subsided, and were thus left nearly in an unmixed state. When viewed through a microscope, their globular nature is distinctly visible. They appear to consist of two distinct parts, the proper globule, and a coloring matter attached to it, or diffused through its substance. It is this coloring matter alone which is soluble in water, and imparts the redness to it; the globule itself not being miscible with this fluid, but remaining suspended or floating on its surface. The author describes with considerable minuteness the effect of different re-agents on this coloring matter, particularly heat, acids, and alkalis. One of the most important conclusions derived from these experiments, with respect to the coloring matter, is that it does not appear to depend in any degree on iron, which has been generally supposed to be the case: but no more iron is found in the ashes of the coloring matter of the blood, than in those of chyle and lymph.—It would seem that this coloring matter might become an object of attention to the dyer, in some of his manufacturing processes.

On a Gaseous Compound of Carbonic Oxide and Chlorine. By John Davy, Esq.—Our scientific readers are acquainted with the attempts that have been made, first by MM. Gay-Lussac and Thénard, and afterward by Mr. Murray of Edinburgh, to unite together the carbonic oxyd and the oxymuriatic gases; efforts which were invariably found to be unsuccessful. We are informed, however, that Mr. John Davy has been able to accomplish this object, and apparently without any difficulty. It is simply stated that the gases were put in contact, and exposed to a bright light for a quarter of an hour; when the mixture was diminished to half its original bulk, and a gas was left with properties different from those of either of the constituents. The object of the present paper is to detail the properties of this new gas. One of the most remarkable is the great quantity

quantity of ammonia which it has the power of dissolving, and which is equal to four times its own bulk: the compound seems to possess many of the characteristics of a neutral salt. When the new gas was heated in contact with metals, the effect was to decompose it; the oxymuriatic gas uniting to the metal, while the carbonic oxyd was left unchanged. Sulphur and phosphorus are sublimed in the gas without experiencing any alteration. A mixture of hydrogen and oxygen, when fired by the electric spark, in contact with the new gas, decomposes it, and forms the muriatic and carbonic acid gases. A similar effect takes place when the new gas is transferred over water. — As this gas has been hitherto produced only by the action of light, Mr. Davy proposes to name it phosgene.

A Narrative of the Eruption of a Volcano in the Sea off the Island of St. Michael. By S. Tillard, Esq., Captain in the Royal Navy. — The formation of a volcanic island in the neighbourhood of the Azores is a fact which has already in different ways been made known to the public, and of which an authentic account is here communicated by an eye-witness. The eruption seems to have been attended with the usual volcanic appearances, and to have been remarkable only for its magnitude and the peculiarity of its situation. The new island rose to the height of about 80 yards above the level of the ocean, and was computed to be something less than a mile in circumference. — Since this paper was written, the island is said to have suddenly disappeared.

On the primitive Crystals of Carbonate of Lime, Bitter-Spar, and Iron-Spar. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D., Sec. R.S. — By means of the instrument which he invented for measuring the minute angles of crystals, and which he named the Goniometer, Dr. Wollaston has been able to discover a difference in the primitive figure of the three minerals mentioned in the title, and thus to evince a great anomaly in geological science. These substances, although totally different in their chemical composition, were supposed to have the same form of crystals: but Dr. Wollaston has ascertained that the angles are respectively 105° , $106\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$, and 107° .

Observations intended to shew that the progressive Motion of Snakes is partly performed by Means of the Ribs. By Ev. Home, Esq., F.R.S. — An opportunity of viewing a living animal of the coluber species having occurred to Sir Jos. Banks, he conceived that he observed some peculiarity in the action of the ribs; and having communicated his ideas to Mr. Home, that gentleman found that the animal was possessed of a curious mechanism, by which the ribs assist in its progressive motion. This mechanism is described, and is illustrated by engravings,

without a reference to which it would not be easy for us to render it intelligible.

An Account of some Experiments on the Combinations of different Metals and Chlorine, &c. By John Davy, Esq. — The metallic combinations which form the principal subject of this paper are such as would, according to the usual nomenclature, be called oxymuriates: but the author likewise relates many experiments on the proportions in which metals combine with sulphur and oxygen. The oxymuriates of which we have an account are those of copper, tin, iron, manganese, lead, zinc, arsenic, antimony, and bismuth. The experiments are numerous, and seem to have been performed with accuracy, but they are of a kind which do not easily admit of any abstract or analysis. In the fifth section, 'On the Relation between the Proportion of Oxygene and Chlorine in Combination with several Metals,' a general principle is introduced that is of considerable importance, both with respect to chemical hypothesis and to the analysis of metallic compounds.

'From a great variety of facts, (says Mr. Davy,) it appears that oxygene and chlorine combine with bodies in the ratio of 7.5 to 33.6. With one part by weight of hydrogen, for example, 7.5 of oxygene unite to form water, and 33.6 of chlorine unite with the same proportion to produce muriatic acid gas. To judge therefore of the accuracy of the analyses of the preceding combinations of the metals and chlorine, it is only necessary to compare them with the analyses of the oxides of the same metals. If the two agree, there will be reason to consider them both correct; but should they disagree, there is equal reason for supposing one or both of them to be wrong.'

Mr. D. then proceeds to compare the oxyds of the different metals, as ascertained by preceding chemists, with the results of his own experiments on the combination of the same metals with the oxymuriatic acid. In some cases, the agreement is striking; and in others, where a difference may be perceived, we have reason to suspect inaccuracy in the proportions assigned to the oxyds. Similar remarks may be applied to the combinations of the metal and sulphur.

Further Experiments and Observations on the Action of Poisons on the Animal System. By B. C. Brodie, Esq., F.R.S. Communicated to the Society for the Improvement of Animal Chemistry, and by them to the Royal Society. — On a former occasion, Mr. Brodie gave an account of the effects of vegetable poisons on the animal economy; and he now proceeds to relate the results of his experiments on some mineral poisons, viz. arsenic, muriate of barytes, tartar-emetic, and corrosive sublimate. The substances were in some cases taken into the stomach, and in others were applied externally to wounded surfaces.

surfaces. With respect to arsenic, it is well known that the consequence of its being received into the stomach is a violent inflammation of that organ: but it is supposed by the author that this inflammation is not owing to the direct action of the arsenic on the stomach, because nearly the same degree of inflammation is produced if the metal be applied to the external surface of the body. Mr. B. never found the œsophagus to be inflamed after arsenic had been taken into the stomach; nor was he able to detect the arsenic in the contents of that viscus after death. Muriate of barytes and tartar-emetic seemed to act in the same way with arsenic, although in a less degree: but the corrosive sublimate appeared to destroy the texture of the stomach by its chemical action on it, and was in this way the immediate cause of death. The following propositions include the general principles which Mr. Brodie deduces from his experiments:

‘ 1. Arsenic, the emetic tartar, and the muriate of barytes, do not produce their deleterious effects until they have passed into the circulation.

‘ 2. All of these poisons occasion disorder of the functions of the heart, brain, and alimentary canal; but they do not all affect these organs in the same relative degree.

‘ 3. Arsenic operates on the alimentary canal in a greater degree than either the emetic tartar, or the muriate of barytes. The heart is affected more by arsenic than by the emetic tartar, and more by this last than by the muriate of barytes.

‘ 4. The corrosive sublimate, when taken internally in large quantity, occasions death by acting chemically on the mucous membrane of the stomach, so as to destroy its texture; the organs more immediately necessary to life being affected in consequence of their sympathy with the stomach.’

PART II.

Additional Experiments on the Muriatic and Oxymuriatic Acids.

By William Henry, M.D., F.R.S., &c. — An account of an elaborate set of experiments on muriatic acid was published by Dr. Henry in the *Philosophical Transactions* for the year 1800, to which these may be considered as supplementary. The author's attention was again turned to the subject by the controversy concerning the nature of oxymuriatic acid, between Mr. Murray and Mr. Davy: but nothing is advanced in the present paper which is decisive of the question at issue, and its value depends on its containing some new facts respecting the electrization of the muriatic acid. Dr. Henry finds that the same quantity of hydrogen is evolved from the acid, whether it has or has not been exposed to muriate of lime: we are also informed that the effect is limited in its extent; and that the proportion of hydrogen evolved is never more than one-fourteenth when the gas is confined over mercury, and that only one-seventieth is pro-

cured if the gas be contained in a globular glass vessel. The hydrogen may be derived from two sources; viz. from the decomposition of water which existed as an element of the gas, or from the decomposition of the muriatic acid itself.

When a mixture of muriatic acid and oxygen is subjected to the action of electricity, a diminution of bulk ensues, and oxymuriatic acid and water are formed; a result which may be explained either on the old or the new hypothesis: since, according to the former, the water is *deposited*, and according to the latter it is *composed* by the union of its elements.

On the Motion of the Tendrils of Plants. By Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq., F.R.S., &c. — The motion of the tendrils of plants appears, in many instances, to be directed so immediately to the preservation of the individual, as to induce some naturalists to conceive that the vegetable was endowed with a certain degree of perception. Mr. Knight, however, rejects this opinion, and here adduces some experiments to prove that these actions may all be explained by a peculiarity of organization and the operation of external causes. The experiments were performed on the Virginian creeper, the ivy, the vine, and the pea. He found that, when plants of the Virginian creeper were placed in a forcing-house, and attached to a slender bar of wood, the tendrils were uniformly bent from the light towards the darkest part of the building; and that they were apparently attracted by black and repelled by bright substances, such as plate-glass. As the experiments on the other plants gave the same general results, the author concludes that light acts on the cellular bark of the tendril so as to extend its substance, and thus bend the stalk in the contrary direction and cause it to come in contact with dark objects. It seems that not only the tendrils but the stems of creeping plants have a tendency to recede from the light, and thus to attach themselves to the opaque bodies which are adapted for their support. The power possessed by the tendril, of twining round any solid body, appears also to depend on pressure; for the fluids can circulate less readily through the side that is pressed, and therefore will cause the contrary side to protrude.

An Account of some Experiments on different Combinations of Fluoric Acid. By John Davy, Esq. — The author informs us that he had been for some time engaged in the examination of the nature of fluoric acid-gas, when MM. Gay-Lussac and Thénard published their "*Researches*," in which they give an elaborate account of this substance. They anticipated many of his results; and Mr. Davy now proposes to treat on such points only as had not been noticed by the French chemists, or on those respecting which he conceives them to be incorrect.

rect. He divides his remarks under four heads; the first relates to the silicated fluoric acid-gas, and the subsilicated fluoric acid; the second, to the combination of these acids with ammoniac; the third, to the fluo-boracic acid; and the fourth, to the ammoniacal salts of this acid. The paper consists almost entirely of a detail of individual facts, and may be considered as adding some important particulars to our knowledge respecting the substances of which it treats. It indicates also the industry and perseverance of the experimentalist, and we have no reason to question the correctness of his details. The points in which he differs from MM. Gay-Lussac and Thénard are not numerous, nor very important; and it is a strong confirmation of the accuracy of these chemists that, in almost every instance, their results have been confirmed by the English philosophers.

Further Experiments and Observations on the Influence of the Brain in the Generation of Animal Heat. By B. C. Brodie, Esq., F.R.S. — This paper contains some new experiments, made for the purpose of proving that the power of generating heat in the animal body is less intimately connected with the passage of the blood through the lungs, than other philosophers have supposed; and that it depends, in a great measure, on the state of the nervous system. Mr. B. had before found, that, when an animal is rendered torpid by the action of poison, life may be maintained by artificial respiration; the circulation continues; and the blood experiences the usual change of colour in passing through the lungs: but the heat of the animal rapidly declines. His object is now to ascertain whether the same change be effected in the expired air, in these cases, as in ordinary respiration. A suitable apparatus was provided; when it appeared that the same diminution of oxygen and production of carbonic acid occurred as in the natural state of the body, but the power of generating caloric appeared to be almost totally suspended. The experiments, though simple, are sufficiently appropriate, and the conclusion deducible from them is directly adverse to the hypothesis which attributes the generation of animal heat to the formation of carbonic acid by respiration. We do not, however, consider the subject as yet matured enough to enable us to determine absolutely in favour of Mr. Brodie's opinion, in opposition to the great mass of facts which has been adduced in support of the old doctrine.

On the different Structures and Situations of the solvent Glands in the digestive Organs of Birds, according to the Nature of their Food and particular Modes of Life. By Everard Home, Esq., F.R.S. — The ingenious author here prosecutes the inquiry which has for some time engaged his attention, with his accustomed assiduity; and his observations are accompanied by a

set of well engraved plates. As we might expect in such investigations, we meet with some interesting adaptations of structure to the external circumstances of the animals; and at the same time with some resemblances between the digestive organs of animals that differ much in their habits and character.

On some Combinations of Phosphorus and Sulphur, and on some other Subjects of chemical Inquiry. By Sir Humphry Davy, Knt., LL.D., Sec. R.S. — Although the direct object of this paper is to give an account of some new compounds of phosphorus and sulphur, yet perhaps the most interesting parts of it are the deductions which the author makes in favour of the doctrine of definite proportions. In a former memoir, Sir Humphry had described the two substances which are produced by the action of phosphorus and oxymuriatic acid; the one a white sublimate, the other a transparent fluid; and it appears that the first contains exactly twice as much of the oxymuriate as the last. The action of water on these substances is attended by some curious phænomena: when added to the liquor, a thick syrupy fluid is produced, which crystallizes by cooling. It seems to be a mixture of pure phosphorus, acid, and water, and is named hydrophosphorous acid. By heat, a peculiar gas is emitted from it, which appears to be a compound of hydrogen and phosphorus, different from the common phosphuretted hydrogen.

From the phænomena which accompany the decomposition of these substances, we learn that phosphoric acid contains exactly twice as much oxygen as phosphorous acid. The substance which is generated by the slow combustion of phosphorus in the air, and which has commonly been regarded as phosphoric acid, the present author determines to be merely a mixture of phosphoric and phosphorous acids, in uncertain proportions.

Sir H. Davy corrects his former estimates of the weight of the sulphuretted hydrogen and sulphureous acid gases. He finds 100 cubic inches of the former to weigh 68 grs., of the latter 36.5 grs.; and from these data he draws the following conclusions:

‘ If 34, the weight of 100 cubical inches of oxygene gas, be subtracted from 68, it will appear that sulphureous acid consists of equal weights of sulphur and oxygene, an estimation which agrees very nearly with one given by M. Berzelius; and if 2.27, the weight of 100 cubical inches of hydrogen, be subtracted from 36.5, the remainder 34.23 will be the quantity of sulphur in the gas; and the number representing sulphur may be stated as 30; and sulphureous acid as composed of one proportion of sulphur 30, and two of oxygene 30; and sulphuretted hydrogen as composed of one proportion of sulphur, and two of hydrogen.’

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We propose to examine the *Mathematical* and *Astronomical* papers in this volume at another opportunity.

[To be continued.]

ART. IX. *Speech of the Honourable Jonah Quincey*, Delivered to the House of Representatives of the United States of America, Jan. 5th, 1813, on a Bill for raising an additional Military Force; wherein the Causes and Effects of the present War are particularly developed. 8vo. pp. 42. 2s. Richardson.

ART. X. *A Series of Letters, with editorial Remarks, on the existing Differences between England and America*. Inscribed to the Earl of Darnley. By Captain Fairman, Aide-de-Camp and Military Secretary to the late Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Curaçao and its Dependencies. 8vo. pp. 68. 3s. Williams.

ART. XI. *Perpetual War the Policy of Mr. Madison*. Being a candid Examination of his late Message to Congress, so far as respects the following Topics: viz. the pretended Negotiations for Peace, the important and interesting Subject of a Conscript Militia; and the Establishment of an immense standing Army of Guards and Spies, under the Name of a Local Volunteer Force. By a New-England Farmer, Author of a late Pamphlet entitled "Mr. Madison's War." 8vo. pp. 120. Printed at Boston; and reprinted for Longman and Co. London. 1813. Price 5s.

THE alteration in the political state of Europe, which was effected by the overthrow of Bonaparte in his invasion of Russia, was expected by many persons to produce a considerable difference in the course of policy pursued by the United States; and Mr. Madison's acceptance of the Russian offer of mediation seemed to come in aid of these pacific anticipations: but month after month has passed away without any appearance of change in the sentiments of the war-party in that country. On the contrary, one rash attempt after another has been made on the side of Canada; while the language of the public documents, and in some respects the resolutions of Congress, have received an additional tincture of asperity. Yet, in fact, no ground of war between America and Great Britain now exists. All that our *quondam* colonists desire in point of freedom of trade, our ministry are willing to grant; and their pretensions with regard to the question of impressment, they well know, will never be admitted. Under these circumstances, we must look for the continuance of a hostile disposition in other causes; and we shall probably be led to fix it elsewhere than in the personal wishes of Mr. Madison and his coadjutors in office. In a country in which the popular voice has such ascendancy, the members of government may be compelled to steer a course opposite to their own conviction, and eventually detrimental to

their own reputation. — These ideas will receive support from the tenor of the first of the three publications which we have comprized in the present article.

I. The speech of Mr. Quincey is one of the clearest and most argumentative discussions of the conduct of the American government, which has proceeded from either this or the other side of the Atlantic. This gentleman, a veteran in the Federalist ranks, took the opportunity of the bill brought in during last January for an augmentation of the army, to enter on a general review of the conduct of the administration. At that time, the military force consisted of 35,000 men, and the proposed addition was 20,000. The ostensible purpose of this large increase was the invasion of Canada : but it was privately urged, in behalf of the measure, that, by exciting the apprehension of the British cabinet for her colonies, it might answer a pacific purpose without necessarily leading to the alternative of farther bloodshed. Mr. Quincey cautions his friends against giving credit to the latter suggestion. Peace, he says, is no part of the intentions of the ruling men ; and the measure in question may be taken as a proof of a disposition to protract the war. The conquest of Canada cannot, he maintains, be accomplished in one year, perhaps not in less than two, three, or four years ; a period during which a connection will be formed between the executive power and the army, which can scarcely fail to be dangerous to the freedom of the Union. ' Whoever,' he says, ' plants the American standard on the walls of Quebec conquers it for himself, and not for the people of the United States.' Successive campaigns will have the effect of training the army to the feelings and habits of the armies of other nations ; and a candidate for the presidency with 30,000 veterans at his heels is not likely to be troubled with rivals.

A curious coincidence may be traced between the arguments of Mr. Quincey, and the observations of Mr. Foster in our House of Commons in the last session, on the nature of the influence which regulates the American councils. Mr. F. declared his belief that Mr. Madison and his colleagues in office were ruled by the turbulent democracy of the southern and western states, instead of being themselves the rulers, which might have been expected from their appearing in the capacity of leaders of the party. While Mr. Quincey accuses the executive power of complete folly and disregard of principle, he represents (p. 35.) the declaration of war as the act of the body of democrats, rather than of their official representatives ; and without consenting to the adoption of such a measure, Mr. Madison and his coadjutors had, in his opinion, little chance of re-election at the approaching vacancy.

‘Just so with respect to the invasion of Canada. It was, in my judgment, a test required by the state of opinion in the southern and western states, of the sincerity of the cabinet, and of its heartiness in the prosecution of the war. This accounts for the strange and headlong haste and the want of sufficient preparation with which the invasion was expedited. This accounts for the neglect to meet the proposition for an armistice when made by the Governor of Canada, after a knowledge of the revocation of the Orders in Council. This accounts for the obtrusive attempts to gain a footing in Canada, and the obstinate perseverance in the shew of invasion, until the members of the electoral colleges had been definitively selected.’

Mr. Quincey proceeds to explain the project of the American cabinet for the current year. Calculating that the vote passed for building ships of war will have given them popularity, they will bring forwards the plan of a loan with considerable confidence. A bounty of forty dollars will, it is expected, fill the ranks of the army; and, by way of flattering the public with the hope of pacification, acts apparently bearing a tendency that way will be passed by the legislature. The last part of his prediction has been already verified by the act which prohibited, under heavy penalties, the employment of British seamen on board of American merchantmen and ships of war: the drift of which, on the part of the executive government, was to appear extremely reasonable, and to throw the odium of continued hostilities on our ministers, who, they knew, would not put much faith in this high-sounding enactment. Mr. Quincey, it appears, has lived long enough among public men to scrutinize the motives of their actions:

‘In making an estimate of the intentions of these, or any other politicians, I make little or no account of pacific pretensions. There is a general reluctance at war, and desire of peace, which pervades the great mass of every people, and artful rulers could never keep any nation at war any length of time beyond their true interests, without some sacrifices to that general love of peace which exists in civilized men. In this country, where the popular sentiment has so strong an impulse on its affairs, the same obtrusive pretensions must inevitably be preserved. No man or set of men ever can or will get this country at war, or continue it long in war, without keeping on hand a stout round stock of gulling matter. Fair propositions will always be made to go hand in hand with offensive acts.’

In transcribing these passages, unfortunately too just as they respect Mr. Madison and his associates, we should be glad to be enabled to disclaim their application to some politicians among ourselves.—Mr. Quincey goes the farther length of imputing the rejection of the treaty of 1806, not to the omission of a stipulation as to the point of impressment, but to a disposition, on the part of Mr. Jefferson, to keep open the

the misunderstanding with England. Speaking of the Anti-federalists, he says :

' The association of the British antipathies in the minds of the mass of the community, with the characters of their political opponents, constitutes the whole magazine of their power. They want not a solid settlement of our differences. If the nation will support them in it, they will persevere in the present war.'

Among other cautions to his political friends, Mr. Quincey bids them beware of doubting the undertaking of any political measure on the ground of its impolicy or absurdity. Had these been obstacles of weight with the American ministry, he says, we should have seen neither an abrupt declaration of war nor a precipitate invasion of Canada. Here again, those who have made a study of European politics, during the late eventful years, are obliged to acknowledge the existence of a very unpleasant resemblance between our own and the Trans-atlantic councils. To attempt the invasion of Holland in 1799 appeared almost incredible to persons who were acquainted with the state of the country ; and to expect success in 1809, from a General who had never seen service, was exactly such a calculation as Bonaparte would have desired us to form.

The object of Mr. Quincey's Speech is to shake the confidence of the American public in the government, and to make them suspected of a secret understanding with France. It appears, however, *en passant*, that Mr. Quincey laments exceedingly the enactment of our Orders in Council, and the impolitic perseverance in them. Throughout his whole Speech, we find nothing in the shape of commendation of our policy ; and his calculations (p. 29.) sufficiently shew that he considers his countrymen as having been exposed, of late years, to very harsh treatment. All this reminds us of the painful truth that we have our own ministers to blame for the origin of this destructive rupture, which cripples our exertions by land and sea against France at the time when decisive efforts are most requisite. These things, however, are now past ; and we agree with Mr. Q. that, since our ministers have altered their plan, and discovered a spirit of conciliation towards America, the true course is to avoid dwelling on former trespasses, and to point out to the friends of peace the democratic faction in America as the real cause of the continuance of bloodshed.

II. We were induced to couple Captain Fairman's pamphlet with Mr. Quincey's Speech, much more from similarity of subject than from correspondence in point of execution. Few writers on military matters have embraced a wider range than Capt. F. He formerly plied Mr. Wyndham with letters both on the interesting subject of the insufficiency of an officer's pay, and

on the expediency of allowing wine, duty-free, to the army. Since the demise of our late Secretary at War, he has soared higher, and has addressed the Duke of York on "the comparative merits of leaden and iron bullets;" and, in addition, he promises to favour the public with the "particulars of the arrival and seizure of General Miranda in South America." In the present publication, we are somewhat at a loss to discriminate the writings of Captain Fairman from those of others. The letters relating to our differences with America are professedly the production of a Trans-atlantic correspondent, and bear the general signature of *AMICUS*; and, if this designation must be taken in its literal sense, Captain Fairman's lucubrations are confined to the editorial notes, with which he has enriched the epistles of his friend. It happens, however, that these two politicians have their differences; *Amicus* condemning decidedly the policy of our Orders in Council, while his annotator considers them in the light of a temporary sacrifice for an ultimate good. We must confess, however, that we see no great disproportion of merit between the two gentlemen. Neither can be complimented as possessing comprehensive views of policy; and after all that is said and unsaid in these pages respecting the foresight of the parties, we find no prediction, except of that general kind which any political reasoner, disposed to take a deliberate view of the *pros* and *cons* of the last year's prospects, might have made without arrogating to himself the gift of prophecy.

III. The pamphlet bearing the title of 'Perpetual War the Policy of Mr. Madison,' is of considerable length, and contains a kind of historical disquisition on the propositions made by the American and British cabinets respectively concerning an armistice. Its author enters particularly into the much disputed question of impressment; argues that the demand made by Mr. Madison is little else than calling on Great Britain to forego the allegiance of a portion of her subjects; and insists that the other powers, particularly France and the United States, are not less jealous than Great Britain of any attempt to withdraw their seamen from them. He adverts by name (p. 100.) to three individual cases, in the United States, of persons tried and convicted for entering into the French service twenty years ago; and he maintains that the offers of peace and negotiation made on the part of Mr. Madison were illusory, and had no other design than to obtain a temporary acquiescence in war-measures on the part of the friends of peace in the eastern states. The present British ministry, on the other hand, he contends (p. 102.) are as friendly to the United States as any cabinet that we have had for thirty years; and in addition

addition to all these arguments on the British side of the question, he speaks in confident language of the number of persons in America who are averse from the prosecution of the war. The northern and middle states, who come under this description, contain three millions of inhabitants; and, which is still more remarkable, they furnish more than *two-thirds* of the native seamen. They form consequently the portion of the Union which is most intitled to decide on the importance of the question of impressment: but they are by no means inclined to consider it as an adequate cause of war, and many of them view the clamour made respecting it as a mere political instrument, wielded by men who are totally indifferent to the sufferings of the sailors or the merchants.

Like most political combatants, the writer of these papers is disposed to see things on one side only, and to exaggerate the demerits of his antagonists. He has the fault, likewise, of being much too diffuse, and of being unconscious that the same reasoning would be more effectual if comprised within a limited compass. The practical result of such writing, however, must be beneficial in the present state of America; where a war-faction appears to have gained an uncontrolled ascendancy, and to hurry the members of government into a series of ruinous and preposterous measures. A blind hatred to England seems the only predominant feeling in the southern states, and no disposition is shewn to distinguish between our past and our present conduct; between our former stoppage of their trade and arbitrary impressment of their seamen, and our present repeal of that stoppage, accompanied by an offer to modify the exercise of the practice of impressment by just and fair regulations.

ART XII. *Mr. Coxe's Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon.*

[Article concluded from the last Review, p. 366.]

FOR the maintenance of his ascendancy over his royal mistress, Alberoni readily perceived that nothing would so much avail as the securing to her children some of the Italian provinces, especially Placentia, the patrimony of her family, of which she was the heiress; and it did not require all the discernment of this acute statesman to see that this object would be best effected by the friendship and assistance of the maritime powers, England and Holland. With the favourite, or with his mistress, the Bourbon family-ties had no weight; and before the Queen's ambition, and the desire of the minister to fix himself in power, those considerations were made to give way. The policy on which
these

these two personages agreed became, in course, that of the indolent and uxorious King.

England, weak and distracted by a disputed succession, had at this juncture the good fortune to be courted by both her most dangerous rivals, France and Spain. The strongest lures on the score of commerce were held out by the latter : but she required in return to be permitted to pursue measures which would in a short time inevitably have set Europe in a flame, and brought on England the enmity if not the open hostility of France. England, however, rent by two powerful factions, was not, at this period, in a situation to encounter danger at her own door ; and a regard to her interest imperiously dictated to her, since she could not satisfy both states, to give France the preference : while prudence prescribed that she should avoid hostilities with Spain, and remain if possible on terms of amity and friendship with her. This was the line which England pursued, and to its wisdom and expediency Mr. Coxe bears testimony. A very detailed and distinct account of the measures of Alberoni, all directed to gratify the designs of the Queen on Italy, will be found in this part of the work ; and nowhere do the labour, research, and experience of the author appear to so much advantage. All that ability and address can do is effected by the individual who from a favourite had become sole minister : but he aimed at what it was not in the power of man to accomplish. He failed, however, because he scorned to bend to seasons and conjunctures. The rapid and able movements, and the displays of strength, now made by Spain, shew the restless ambitious turn of Elizabeth Farnese, and the skill of Alberoni.

Besides struggling with circumstances, and the interests of nations, Alberoni had to maintain his ground against the jealousy of foreigners ; which is so inveterate in the Spanish nation, and which received additional force from the want of success in his measures, although they were most ably planned and vigorously executed. An anecdote, which the author quotes from St. Simon, seems to us to deserve attention, as it illustrates this trait of the Spanish character, and displays the constitution of the court, with the great unpopularity of the government of the Queen and her minister. The King had been for some time labouring under a very serious and alarming disorder.

‘ During this illness no person was admitted into the royal apartment, except those whom the Queen and Alberoni chose to permit. As the medical department is under the controul of the Lord Chamberlain, the consultations of the physicians ought to be held, and the medicines administered, in his presence. The Duke of Escalona, then holding the important office, was a grandee respectable for his rank, age, talents, and virtues, who, as viceroy of Naples, and on
many

many other occasions, had displayed his zealous attachment to the sovereign; but he was still more remarkable for his austere manners and punctilious character. As he evinced his intention to fulfil the duties of his charge, it was intimated to him by order of Alberoni, that he would do better not to intrude on the King's privacy; and content himself with proper inquiries at the door of the apartment.

' This intimation being only received with contempt and indignation, Alberoni, by the order of the Queen, gave orders that the intrusive grandee should not be admitted. One afternoon, however, the Duke presented himself. Having in vain demanded an entrance, he burst open the door in the face of the page in waiting, and after upbraiding him with his insolence, advanced into the royal bed-chamber. He observed the Queen sitting at the head of the bed, the curtains of which were closely drawn, the Cardinal standing by, and the attendants at a respectful distance. The Duke, who, besides his advanced age, was crippled with the gout, slowly traversed the apartment, by the help of his cane. Being observed by the Queen, she beckoned the Cardinal, who sent one of the attendants, ordering him to retire. As the Duke still continued to advance, the Cardinal himself approached and told him, the King wished to be alone. "That is not true," exclaimed the indignant grandee, "I am not blind. You did not approach the head of the bed, nor did his Majesty speak to you."

' Alberoni continuing to urge him to retire, gently pressed him by the arm. This insult roused the choler of the Lord Chamberlain, who burst into reproaches against the insolence of the Cardinal for preventing him from approaching the royal person, and performing the duties of his office. A struggle ensued; the Duke, who was the weakest, sunk into a chair; but grappling with his antagonist, in a paroxysm of rage, struck him on the head and shoulders with his cane, calling him a little contemptible varlet, who deserved nothing but a drubbing, with various epithets, which the irritation of the moment suggested; and declaring that if not restrained by the respect due to the royal presence, he would kick him out of the room. The Cardinal with difficulty disengaged himself; but the Duke, when unable to reach him, still continued to abuse, and threaten him by his gestures, while the Queen and attendants witnessed the singular scene in silent astonishment.

' Soon after his return home, the Duke received an order of banishment from Madrid, and the moment his disgrace was known, his house was filled with a crowd of all ranks, who hastened to testify their respect and regard. No other notice was however taken of this singular scene. As the Cardinal was apprehensive of increasing the general odium by a more vigorous act of authority, the Duke was recalled in a few months; but he indignantly rejected all overtures for a reconciliation, and never again spoke to the minister while in Spain. To add to the singularity of this adventure, the King of Spain knew nothing of the squabble, nor the banishment and recall of the Duke, till after the disgrace of Alberoni *.

* *Mémoires de St. Simón*, t. 7. p. 215. 220., who informs us he received the anecdote from the Duke of Escalona himself.

While

While Alberoni continued by his want of judgment to plunge into difficulties which he had not the means of surmounting, we are informed that the mortifications and the opposition, which he endured, served only to stimulate his spirit and call forth his powers :

‘ He tampered with every power in Europe, which from principles, connections, or situation, might contribute to embarrass his opponents. To shackle the efforts of the Emperor, he opposed the attempts of the maritime powers and France to mediate a peace with the Turks. He opened a communication with Ragotski, the exiled Prince of Transylvania, and offered him a subsidy sufficient to purchase the auxiliary aid of 30,000 Turks. In France he endeavoured to excite internal commotions, by fomenting the discontents against the Regent, encouraged the Protestants in the Cevennes to raise again the standard of revolt, and opened a communication with the discontented in Brittany.

‘ He attempted to awaken the commercial jealousy of the Dutch, and lured them with the hopes of securing the advantages which were to be wrested from England. In England, also, he endeavoured to give a new impulse to those feuds which are the natural effects of a free government, and the struggles of contending parties. By means of his agents he published exaggerated complaints on the infractions of the constitution, the burthen of the taxes, and the usual topics of popular declamation. He did not forget also to touch on the delicate subject of commercial advantages. In England, as in Holland, he wrote circular letters to the merchants, expatiating on the losses of trade which must ensue from a rupture with Spain. He found zealous partizans in the opposition, which consisted not merely of the excluded Tories, but numerous chiefs of the Whigs, among whom are distinguished the names of Walpole, Townshend, Carteret, Methuen, and Pulteney. Lastly, he entered into a direct and intimate connection with the Jacobites, and raised their drooping hopes with the promise of foreign support. And as he was now convinced that England had decidedly embraced the cause of the Emperor, he urged his sovereign to divert the armament destined for Sicily to the British isles, and lay the axe to the very root of the confederacy ; but fortunately for our national tranquillity, Philip was too much ruled by his personal resentment, and too anxious for an establishment in Italy, to adopt the bold advice.’

The measures taken by England and France in concert, in order to effect the downfall of Alberoni, are a decisive proof of his vast powers. Although those measures were skilfully concerted and followed up, and means were found to prejudice the Queen against him, yet would this complicated intrigue have scarcely been effectual, had it not been assisted by the agency of a very inferior person, viz.

‘ Laura Pescatori, originally the nurse of the Queen, and now her *assa feta*, or first woman of the bed-chamber, who, from the influence of early habits, possessed a great share in the affection, if
not

not the confidence, of her royal mistress. This woman, a native of the same parish as Alberoni, and of parentage no less obscure, was imbued with that vanity which is frequently the companion of vulgar minds in sudden elevation. Her upstart pride was wounded by the state affected by her equally ignoble countryman; and she avenged herself by singing and repeating to her royal mistress the numerous pasquinades which the fertile and satirical genius of the Spaniards daily produced against his administration. She thus unconsciously prepared the way for a more serious attack, and the power of ridicule had already associated the person and character of the minister with ideas of contempt, long before his abilities and services had ceased to inspire the respect which they deserved.'

By the intervention of this woman, Scotti, the Parmesan minister, who was the agent of France and England,

' Obtained a private interview with the Queen, in which he developed the mischiefs resulting from the plans of Alberoni; and, in the name of the English and French governments, assured her of a more certain and substantial aggrandizement for herself and her family, than she could expect from his most successful efforts, if she would contribute to his dismissal. However grateful for his services, and however sensible of his talents, she was too much discouraged by his ill success to resist the temptation, and joined her decisive voice to the cabals already directed against the falling minister.

' The attack was conducted with perfect secrecy, and Alberoni experienced no apparent diminution of the royal favour; for, on the evening, the last of his political life, he transacted business with the King, and held a long conference with Scotti. But on the following morning, the King departed to the Pardo, and, as if to give greater publicity to his disgrace, instead of the usual letter of dismissal, left a royal decree, to be transmitted to him by the Marquis of Tolosa, one of the secretaries of state, announcing his removal from all political power, and enjoining him to quit Madrid in eight days, and the Spanish dominions in three weeks.

' Thunderstruck with the order, Alberoni demanded in vain an audience of the King, and at last was permitted to write. But the letter, if it ever reached its destination, produced no mitigation of his fate, for he was abruptly commanded to obey. He therefore employed the short interval of his stay in preparing for his departure, and rendering an account of his administration.

' Before he withdrew from the political scene, he experienced a revulsion of the public sentiment, which has seldom occurred in the history of disgraced ministers. Detested as a foreigner and an upstart, and loaded with popular execration, while in power, the moment of disgrace became the signal of a triumph as flattering as it was unexpected. A chivalrous and high spirited nation overlooked his errors, his faults, and his misfortunes, in the recollection of his superior talents, and meritorious services: at his last levée, such a crowd of nobles, gentry, and clergy flocked to pay their final respects, and condole with him in his disgrace, as he had never witnessed even in the height of power. The King was alarmed and chagrined by this

proof of public esteem, and ordered him to take his departure a day before the term originally prescribed.'

This homage paid to the fallen minister is so curious and singular, is so decisive a testimony to his merit, and is at the same time so creditable to the nation, that we have judged it proper to lay it before our readers.

Although Mr. Coxe dwells most on the favourable side of this great minister's character, he does not appear to us to state any conclusion respecting him which facts and authorities do not warrant. The subsequent history of Spain, we think, places beyond all doubt the superior qualities of him whom she sacrificed to the intrigues of her enemies: but had his policy, or rather that of the Queen, been abandoned together with its author, we are far from thinking that the abandonment would have been unwise or inexpedient.

The remainder of Philip's reign contains many events that are both curious and important; namely, his strange abdication, the interregnum called the reign of Louis, Philip's resumption of the crown, the bickerings and quarrels with France, the alliance with the Emperor, the farther disputes with England, the King's violation of his engagements respecting the Austrian succession, the first successes and final reverses which his arms experienced in the war which followed, &c. &c.; and these several events are detailed and discussed in the author's usual able and considerate manner. It is more owing to the subject than the writer, that this part of the narrative is rather instructive than amusing, and that it will be more satisfactory to the politician and the statesman than to the general reader.

Of the King and Queen, a short time before the death of the former, the author borrows the ensuing account from the despatches of the Duke de Noailles to Louis XV., while French minister at Madrid:

"I found," he said, "the King of Spain so changed that I should scarcely have recognised him, had I seen him elsewhere than in his own palace. He is much more corpulent, and seems shorter, because he has great difficulty in keeping himself upright, and in walking, which arises from his total neglect of exercise. In regard to his understanding, he is not altered. He displays good sense, and, whenever he will give himself the trouble to discourse of business, he answers with justness and precision. He has forgot nothing that he has done, seen, or read; and speaks of past transactions with much pleasure. He recollects every alley in the wood of Fontainebleau, where he was accustomed to shoot. He has great regard for your Majesty, and speaks of you with tenderness and affection. All here concur in saying, that he is more affected with your successes in Flanders than with those of the Infant in Italy. His heart is truly French.

"The Queen appears sensible and lively; she sees accurately, and answers justly. She unites politeness with dignity. I have not yet conversed with her enough to develop her character; but in general, I perceive that the portraits drawn of her have been overcharged. She is a woman; she is ambitious; she has already been duped; and as she fears new deception, she carries her distrust too far. But in my opinion, a prudent and disinterested man might gain her confidence; and with patience bring her to reason. Such men are not easily found in any time or country."

Very soon after this time, Philip closed his mortal career. The following is a part of the just sketch with which Mr. Coxe finishes the history of his reign:

'We have already exhibited the singular and inconsistent character of Philip in so many different lights, that little remains to add in closing our narrative of his reign. It would be difficult to select a period within the last two centuries, in which the interests and welfare of the nation were so frequently sacrificed to the private views, passions, and prejudices of the sovereigns. Yet, when we consider how frequently Philip was misled by his artful Queen, and the ministers of her choice, it would be unjust to attribute to him alone the machinations and troubles which the restless court of Madrid excited in Europe, from the period that he was left in tranquil possession of the throne. With regard, however, to the beneficial regulations which mark his reign, his eager desire of information, and the pleasure with which he invariably listened to projects of reform and details of improvement, prove that if he had not himself the talents to invent, he had at least the merit of approving and sanctioning the plans of others. To this solicitude, Spain owes many advantages. On his accession, the country was totally exhausted, without a marine or efficient army, without industry or manufactures, with scarcely a remnant of her ancient power, wealth, and grandeur. He left an army which, though reduced by the Italian war, had vindicated the national honour in many a well fought field, a marine which once more awakened the attention of Europe, and establishments which proved the revival of industry, trade, and the arts.'—

'Spain owes to him some establishments truly national. The royal library, founded in 1712, which is open to the public, and has gradually increased to an extent which may vie with similar institutions in other countries. The academy for preserving the purity of the Spanish language was founded in 1714, in imitation of that of France, and its labours may bear an honourable comparison with those of any similar society. The academy of San Fernando, for the improvement of sculpture and painting. And lastly, the academy of history, which owes its origin to a society of individuals, and was incorporated in 1738. Its object was to preserve and illustrate the historical monuments of the kingdom. Its device is elegant and appropriate, being a fountain expanding into a river, with the motto, "*In patriam, populumque fluit.*"'

Of the unpretending manner and substantial merit of the present performance, the subsequent passages are fair specimens.

mens, while they furnish a complete insight into the peaceful reign of Ferdinand VI.

‘ Ferdinand was in the thirty-sixth year of his age, when the treaty of Aix la Chapelle pacified Europe, rendered the court of Madrid the centre of political intrigue, and revived that harmony between Spain and Great Britain which had been interrupted by the machinations of France, and the ambition of Elizabeth Farnese. He was low in stature, ordinary in person, of a delicate constitution, and docile temper, though occasionally subject to violent fits of passion. Scrupulously attentive to veracity in all his words and actions, he was characterised under the noble designation of ‘ a prince who was guilty of no untruth.’ He was æconomical almost to a degree of parsimony in his own personal expences, yet liberal to his subjects in cases of distress. He was supremely anxious to maintain his country in peace and tranquillity, from a conviction that the spirit of heroism and conquest, which had so long domineered in the counsels of Spain, had injured the real interests of the nation, and obstructed the improvement of its agriculture and commerce.

‘ Though he felt a personal affection for the chief of the house of Bourbon, yet he equally deprecated a dependence on France, or hostility with Great Britain; and repeatedly declared that he would never be a viceroy to the King of France upon the throne of Spain. Like his father, he never doubted the invalidity of the renunciation which had been made of the eventual succession to the French throne; but so far from casting a longing eye on that succession, he invariably expressed his resolution to remain in Spain, should it ever become vacant, and leave to his brother the option of realizing his pretensions.

‘ Subject to the same hypochondriac malady which had afflicted his father, with fewer resources, and as little activity, he sunk into despondency and apprehension of death, on the slightest indisposition or anxiety. Naturally more irresolute than his father, he fancied he had done his duty when he had charged his ministers with the burthen of affairs. Averse to the details of business, from habit and disposition incapable of serious application, the chase and music formed his only amusements, or rather occupations. He was so sensible of this incapacity, that to a person who complimented him on his skill in shooting, he replied, “ It would be extraordinary if I could not do ~~one~~ thing well.” This conviction, and these defects, rendered him a mere instruments in the hands of those to whom he confided the government.

‘ Ferdinand placed the most implicit confidence in his Queen, communicated to her the most private affairs, and seldom formed the slightest resolution without her advice, or rather approbation. She therefore became a no less important personage in the government, than Elizabeth Farnese during the preceding reign.

‘ Maria Magdalena Theresa Barbara was the daughter of John the Fifth, King of Portugal, by Mary Anne, daughter of the Emperor Leopold the First. She was born in 1711, and in 1729 espoused Ferdinand, who was two years older than herself. By her sleek and insinuating manners, she conciliated the good will of Philip

and the Queen her step-mother ; while she gained the entire affection of her husband by her amiable deportment, and conformity to his inclinations and temper. She was homely in her features, and the original elegance of her shape was lost in corpulence.

She was a woman of agreeable address, sprightly wit, and uncommon gentleness of manners. She was cheerful in public, and extravagantly fond of dancing and music ; but she partook of the constitutional melancholy of her husband. Her solitary hours were haunted by two contrary apprehensions ; the dread of want, the customary fate of the Spanish Queens, if she survived him ; and the fear of a sudden death, which her asthmatic complaint, and plethoric habit rendered not unlikely. From the first of these motives, she was greedy of amassing money, and debased her dignity by accepting presents from the ministers, and even from foreign ambassadors. Hence, notwithstanding her engaging qualities, she was never beloved nor respected in Spain.

But, although she swayed Ferdinand with as much power, and less difficulty, than even Elizabeth Farnese governed his father, yet many peculiarities in his temper and disposition, as well as in her own, set bounds to her absolute controul. Timid and irresolute on occasions of emergency and difficulty, she was unable to act with firmness, and melted into tears when it became necessary to decide with spirit and dignity. The fear of harassing and agitating the King's mind, and of throwing him into doubts and despondency, prevented her from exerting all her influence in obtaining the dismissal of persons in whom she did not place implicit confidence. For she well knew from experience the indolence and irresolution of the King ; and dreading the effects of anxiety on his constitutional weakness, she was apprehensive lest any difficulty should induce him to execute a resolution he had sometimes hinted, of resigning his crown. Another embarrassment, not less serious, arose from the fear that the King of Naples would profit by the increase of his hypochondriac malady, to assume the reins of government, and the consciousness that he was secretly encouraged by a strong party in Spain, and by the private instigations of France.

Without hopes of succession, without talents for rule, and of delicate health, she confined her ambition principally to the credit of nominating and supporting the chief ministers, taking little share in the exercise of that power to which she had raised them. She employed, therefore, all her address to maintain her ascendancy over the King, and fomented disputes among the ministers, that by holding the balance in her own hands, she might incline it to the weakest side. Convinced from long experience, and a perfect knowledge of her husband's disposition, that he founded his policy on the maintenance of peace, she supported that system with her whole influence. From similar motives, she alternately favoured the courts of Great Britain and France as each appeared on the decline.'

We wish that our limits would allow us to present to our readers the masterly sketches of the Spanish ministers at the accession of Ferdinand which here occur, and some of which

which are originals, and worthy of the author's pen. In this part of the work, Mr. Coxe seems to exceed himself; and it will be no disparagement to him if we ascribe this excellence to the sources from which his matter is drawn, namely, from the incomparable dispatches of that distinguished diplomatist, Mr., afterward Sir Benjamin Keene, who was so long our minister at Madrid. Although, however, we must pass over the accounts here given of the Spanish ministers, we cannot overlook one person, who, though not nominally of the group, was so closely connected with it that he is ludicrously called by foreign writers *the prime minister*. The account illustrates also the genius of the Spanish court:

‘ Carlo Brocchi, surnamed Farinelli, was born at Naples in 1705, and having attracted the admiration of Italy by the excellence of his voice and style of singing, came to England in 1734, was engaged at the Italian opera, and rapidly amassed a considerable fortune. In 1737 he went to Versailles, and from thence was drawn to Madrid by Elizabeth Farnese, who was desirous to try the power of music in soothing the melancholy of her husband. Soon after his arrival, she arranged a concert in an apartment adjoining to that where the King was in bed, where he had lain for a considerable time; and from which no persuasion could induce him to rise. Philip was struck with the first air sung by Farinelli, and at the conclusion of the second, sent for him, loaded him with praises, and promised to grant whatever he should demand. The musician, who had been tutored by the Queen, intreated him to rise from his bed, suffer himself to be shaven and dressed, and attend the council. Philip complied, and from that moment his disorder took a favourable turn. This incident was the origin of the high favour to which Farinelli arrived. He regularly sung every evening to the King the same airs, was rewarded with a pension of 2,000*l.* per annum, besides continual presents from their Catholic Majesties; and was no less noticed by Ferdinand and Barbara, Prince and Princess of Asturias, who were both extravagantly fond of music.

‘ On the accession of Ferdinand, he rose in favour and consideration, was honoured with the cross of Calatrava, and as director of the opera, became the minister of the royal pleasures. An elegant theatre was erected at the gardens of the Buen Retiro; singers, dancers, and skilful machinists, were drawn from every quarter; and under his superintendence the capital and royal residence were enlivened with a series of exhibitions, which vied with the most splendid spectacles in Europe. His taste and abilities were equally displayed in the magnificent musical parties on the Tagus, during the royal residence at Aranjuez.

‘ His situation in these diversions enabled him to hold long and familiar conversations with the Queen, and to ingratiate himself still more in her confidence. He was therefore soon beset by all the pretenders to court favour, flattered by the public ministers, and cajoled even by crowned heads. He was not, however, dazzled by such

temptations. He did not seek for honour, and accepted the cross of Calatrava merely from a fear of offending his royal patroness. Always modest and unassuming, he behaved with affability to those below him, and with respect to his superiors; often bantering those who forgot their rank to pay him court, and displaying a disinterestedness and independence worthy of a more exalted station.

Knowing the uncertain tenure of court favour, he exerted the same ingenuity to avoid, as others employ to gain a share of political influence. But with all his caution, he could not always resist the flattery of sovereigns, and the importunities of ministers, particularly when he found that his agency was not unacceptable to his royal patroness herself. He therefore became the frequent channel of political communication, and occasionally ventured to suggest such notions as were likely to please the Queen, or were furnished by those with whom he was in habits of friendship. He has been falsely accused of receiving bribes from the English and Austrian ambassadors: but with a character so peculiarly disinterested, his own fortune and the favour of his patrons placed him above the reach of this species of temptation. Indeed in his whole conduct, we trace the operation of more honourable motives. The first was a zealous devotion to his royal patroness, which rendered him incessantly watchful to avoid clashing with her favourite principles or rules of government. Other considerations were his respect for the Empress Maria Theresa, whom, as a native of Naples, he always considered as his sovereign; and a strong sense of gratitude for the favour and patronage he had experienced in England. But the most powerful, and perhaps only motive which overcame his studied caution, was the esteem which he particularly entertained towards the minister Esenada. Him he never courted in prosperity or deserted when he was declining in favour, and though he was often treated by him with insulting coolness, he was never unfaithful to the sentiments of their former friendship.

Borne down as we now are by burthens occasioned by a war of unparalleled expenditure, we cannot forbear to insert the passage in which the historian pays his last tribute to the upright and pacific Ferdinand:

‘Ferdinand was a prince of inferior capacity, but of upright intentions and pacific disposition. In laying down a system of policy most advantageous to the real interests of his country, and pursuing it with probity and firmness, unshaken by threats, temptations, and promises, and in opposition to the ties of blood and the bias of private inclinations, he exhibits a spectacle uncommon in the history of nations. The prejudices of an interested policy, the zeal of party, the spirit of misguided heroism, have stigmatized the reign of this amiable monarch with the imputation of tameness and a dereliction of national honour. A more cool and dispassionate posterity have done justice to the wisdom of his measures, and distinguished him by the epithet of Ferdinand the Sage. During his tranquil reign, which was a longer period of peace than Spain had enjoyed since Philip the Second, and while the surrounding nations were involved in the horrors of war, his people continued to flourish and improve in agriculture, manufac-

tured,

tures, and commerce, and conferred on him a fame superior to that derived from sanguinary triumphs, in adoring him as the father and restorer of his country?

Ferdinand was also economical; lessened the bondage of his kingdom to the church; promoted its manufactures and arts; erected into a royal academy the school of painting, sculpture, and architecture, which was founded by his father, and endowed it with funds; established the botanical garden at the Pardo; and promoted the endeavours of *Ensenada* to naturalize the arts, sciences, and improvements of foreign nations.

We see no reason why Mr. Coxe might not, down to this period, have given us a History of Spain instead of *Memoirs of its kings*. According to the mode which he has chosen, the reader, on a first perusal, is no sufferer on the score of amusement: but the difference is felt when the work comes to be consulted, and when that which at first pleased and delighted appears insipid or even impertinent. *Mr. Coxe is too great a master of his art to adopt the looser title without availing himself of the liberties which it warrants. Truth and good faith, however, are as obligatory on a writer of memoirs as on the historian; and in this respect we have no fault to allege against the author, who carefully examines, judiciously weighs, and fairly appreciates his materials. He makes admirable use of the memoirs with which the period abounded; and his criticisms on them evince extraordinary diligence, and a very extensive acquaintance with modern literature, as well foreign as domestic.

Although we have taken the liberty of animadverting freely on the work before us, we have uniformly felt the highest respect for a writer who, by his well-directed and indefatigable labours, has insured considerable fame and distinction to himself, while he has laid his country and the age under signal obligations; and we are of opinion that, if he may not rank in the very first class of authors, it is because he does not allow himself time to give that finish to his productions which he wants the patience rather than the power to confer.

We cannot, however, conclude without observing that, in the present volumes, instead of recognizing our former acquaintance, the spirited and independent publicist, we often meet with a person of a merely cautious and circumspect cast. The counsels which, in this country and at the beginning of this reign, effected the downfall of a great minister, which deprived the nation of his services, which saved our enemy from a decisive blow, and which involved Britain in humiliation, are stated in gentle and very measured terms; and the reader, if he seeks his information from no other source, is spared the disquietude of mortified and indignant

indignant feelings. It is with concern that, in a work of such high general merit, we find so important a trans-action as the rupture of England with the American colonies grossly misrepresented, and that calamity stated as in a great degree occasioned by events which had a very slight, if any, operation in producing it: while the wanton provocations, and the insidious and oppressive measures, which really excited the catastrophe, are mentioned as originating in a legitimate principle; and no delinquency, beyond that of weakness, is imputed to the odious administrations whose criminality and folly proved so injurious to their country. — In the History of the House of Austria, Mr. Coxe lost no opportunity of pointing out to his readers the benefits arising from religious liberty and the free exercise of the rights of conscience, as well as the mischiefs of bigotry and persecution. *There* it is on all proper occasions emblazoned to the reader that toleration is the strength of a community, and that intolerance breeds schisms and divisions which lead to the decline or overthrow of states. It might have been thought that the affairs of Spain furnished equally fair opportunities for inculcating similar lessons; and that the times in which the author was writing called for them as imperiously from every enlightened friend of his country. It would be unfair, on mere presumptions, to impute to any man improper motives; or to insinuate that a respectable publicist, as it were at the close of his career, would sacrifice fame and honorable distinction to the hope or the promise of preferment, and sink the historian in the ecclesiastic: but the courtliness and deficiency which we here detect, instead of welcoming the former spirit that we have been praising, are facts to which it is our duty to advert, and which remain to be adequately explained.

ART. XIII. *Poetical Sketches of Scarborough*: illustrated by Twenty-one Engravings of Humorous Subjects, coloured from original Designs, made upon the Spot by J. Green, and etched by T. Rowlandson. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Ackerman. 1813.

FORMERLY, poets furnished ideas to the painter; now, the case is altered, and the professors of the pictorial art stimulate the genius of the poet. So far, the volume before us, though not exactly on the plan of the *Tour of Dr. Syntax**, came into existence under similar circumstances. It appears that Mr. Green, the artist, during a visit to Scarborough in the season of 1812, made various pleasing and humorous sketches of the most

* See our Review for January last.

striking objects which presented themselves at that celebrated watering-place; and that some of his poetical friends, to whom they were shewn, undertook the task of illustrating and giving them effect by appropriate sketches in verse. Some of these chapters, we are informed, proceed from the pen of Dr. Combe, the versifier of Dr. Syntax's Tour; four are written by the Rev. Francis Wrangham; and the remainder by Mr. Papworth, the engraver. The work is properly introduced with a prose-account of Scarborough, the first paragraph of which we shall transcribe for the information of those who have not visited the northern counties of England:

' Scarborough, about 214 miles distant from London, and 40 from York, is situated in the south-east corner of the North-Riding of Yorkshire, at the bottom of a beautiful bay, from which it rises in the form of a crescent, on the slope of a bold and varied shore, presenting several points of great elevation.—It is sheltered on the north-east by a lofty and precipitous rock surrounded by the sea, except on the west side. This rock contains on its summit a level area of nineteen acres, on which stand the ruins of the castle. The town is well built, but, from its romantic situation, regularity cannot be expected. The principal streets of the upper town are spacious and handsome, particularly Queen Street, Long Room Street, and Newborough. The latter, which may, perhaps, be considered as the main or high street, is about 1000 feet in length, 50 wide, and has on each side an excellent flagged pavement 9 feet broad. In regard to beauty of situation, the New Buildings on the Cliff stand unrivalled. As lodging-houses, for which purpose they were originally built, they are commodious and elegant; and in summer, are agreeably refreshed by the breezes from the sea. The terrace, in front, elevated near 100 feet above the level of the sands, commands a variety of delightful prospects.—According to the enumeration of 1811, Scarborough contains 6570 resident inhabitants.'

The twenty-one plates engraved from Mr. Green's original sketches exhibit the following scenes:—A Trip to Scarbro', (a humorous caricature,)—The Breakfast Room,—The Spa Wells,—The Spa Terrace,—The Shoe-Shop,—The Castle and North Shore*,—The Warm Bath*,—The Cornelian Party*,—Sea Bathing†,—The Drive,—The Church and Church-Yard,—The Shower-Bath†,—The Library,—The Promenade†,—The Theatre,—The Ball-Room*,—The Terrace-Steps,—The Water-Party,—The Post-Office,—and, The Departure; and fronting the title-page is a vignette representing The Widow Ducker and her Nymphs. These various sketches furnish much matter for humorous descrip-

* These four descriptions are written by Mr. Wrangham.

† These three by Dr. Combe.

tion; and though it was not easy to work such detached objects into one tale, and give to the whole the effect of a novel, yet the business is so managed as to introduce a little love-story, some characters and scenes of modern life, the humours of a watering-place, and the follies of fashion.

Mr. Papworth's style of hudibrastic humour appears in his introductory lines on the Shoe-Shop :

' Fashion, an *ignis fatuus* jade,
Or jack-a-lantern friend to trade,
Delusive sports before our eyes —
Away each willing vot'ry flies :
Up hill, down dale, thro' bog and pool,
The old, the young, the wise, the fool ;
All charm'd alike, she leads them on
Till half, by Fashion, are undone.

' O would she take a nobler part —
Improve the mind and mend the heart ;
Lure, by her charms, to worthy toil,
The genius of our native soil ;
To science lead the tedious way,
Pour on its gloom the cheering ray,
Then bless'd, would Albion proudly soar
More rich in intellectual lore :
Sublimar thoughts would swell the lay,
And art, enraptured, hail the day !
Then, Rome and Greece no more might vie
With British arts, or minstrelsy.

' Fashion, for so the learn'd insist,
Has grown a sage economist !
Has chang'd her once expensive views
To stay at home, and cobble shoes !
Silena — lovely, blooming maid,
An amateur of Crispin's trade,
Sits all day long on three-legg'd stool,
With awl, with pincers, and with rule ;
Resolv'd, among the learn'd, to soar
In sage, Hypodemetic lore :
A rival to the great Magog,
Of Crispin art — high Crispin Clog.
A paving stone, within her lap
She hugs, and hammers — rap, rap, rap,
To harden, or to soften soles,
And bores her friends, with boring holes.
She, skilled in winning female arts,
To captivate and soften hearts ;
Sings sweet, for know, she never whistles
As she pulls thro' the thread and bristles ;
And, wide extending both her arms,
She rivals Jobson's wife in charms.

' Lord

‘ Lord Blinker too, with hides and tether,
Sits, half invisible, in leather;
Platting and twisting — waxing — lugging,
And at a vice with main-strength tugging;
So earnestly intent, you’d swear
He sought to be a muse’s heir;
But no! the Nine he counts no more;
His whole arithmetic is Four.
He scorns, what to the muse belongs:
He’s making whip-sticks, cords and thongs;
The wreath, to crown the poet’s lays,
He gathers not — he whips his bays!

‘ At Scarbro’, if the reigning fashion
Was, or was not the Leather Passion,
Admits of doubt: — but, all who tread
The margin of old ocean’s bed,
And on the shingles take their views,
Will learn the worth of boots and shoes.’

In majestic song, Mr. Wrangham calls up the mighty dead who have given celebrity to Scarborough Castle, and, after having sketched its antient splendor, finishes with a sigh over its ruins:

‘ And now, of all the pageant sheen
Quick flitting o’er the trophied scene,
Memorial of what once had been,
No glittering wrecks remain!
Before mine eye, uncharm’d is spread,
Of vulgar roofs the crescent-red,
And, spreading on its pebbled bed,
The blue and billowy main.’

The playful muse is not courted by Mr. W. with equal success; and, by introducing his classical learning, he gives a heaviness to what is meant for light verse. His chapter on the Warm Bath displays his knowledge *De Thermis*: but he makes rather an aukward amalgam of Latin and Greek with English:

‘ You’ve read, no doubt, and well could state his
De Tepidis, De Temperatis.
‘ But ah! too like the fount of *Salmacis*,
Goddess, thy cleansing wave at Scarbro’ is,
‘ That half hour’s space elaps’d, to be
Venus Anadyomene.
‘ (*Λεπτὸν μὲν ὕδωρ*) he gulphs down
A second tumbler, *Βαθυκαλπον.*’

A note is given at the word *Salmacis*, in which we are referred to Ovid who has noticed this effeminating fountain: but we have no note to the word *Anadyomene*, though few, probably,
of

of the West-Riding merchants understand Greek, but will consider the epithet attached to Venus, and the Greek pot-hooks at p. 94., as very outlandish. The writer who introduces Latin and Greek into a work of light reading, intended for the amusement of the frequenters of watering-places, resembles the country-gentleman who should promise to make a pleasant walk through his ground for the accommodation of his neighbours, and then puts up such stiles as no one can climb.—While we are on the subject of notes, we must rectify a mistake into which Mr. W. has fallen, in his attempt to explain the origin of the word *Touters*, or rather *Tooters*, as applied to the persons who canvas each new visitant at watering-place. He thinks that it probably comes from ‘the French *tout*, as they lose nothing, at least for want of asking.’ The term which is now general was originally local. When Epsom in Surrey was the most fashionable watering-place, it was the practice of those inhabitants who had prepared lodgings, &c. for the public to go as far as *Tooting* to canvas those who were on their way to Epsom; and these forestallers were consequently called *Tooters*. Afterward, all those who at watering-places solicited the favours of newcomers were termed *Tooters*.

For easy narrative, playful invention, and humorous anecdote, Dr. Combe has before manifested a felicity of genius: but in his present attempts he is not very successful. His chapter on Sea-Bathing takes a satirical glance at the indelicacy of Sea-Bathing exhibitions, and comically depicts a scene which not unfrequently occurs: but, in his other chapters, he labours for something to say; and his Promenades, if we except the concluding compliment to the Ladies of the North, will be read with little interest. The Sea-Bathing party is thus described:

‘ While Caroline her glass was trimming
To see the gentlemen a swimming,
While sister Betsy sought a store
Of pretty pebbles on the shore;
And little Tommy, all astride,
Upon his cock-horse chose to ride; —
The following colloquy began
Between the ladies and a man
Who sought with all humility,
To introduce them to the Sea.
“ And please your Ladyship, I beg
In my machine you’ll put a leg;
A better you cannot command
Of all you see upon the strand:
While my wife, who, for many a year,
Has waited on the gentry here,
Will please you madam to a T,
As if you try her, you will see, —

Undress

Undress and dress you in a trice,
And put your ribbands all so nice,
Stick ev'ry pin into its place ; —
For, she has waited on her Grace,
And many a noble Lady too, —
With such great Quality as you.

“ All this is well,” Aunt Tabby said,
“ You seem, my friend, to know your trade :
But while I see those ladies splashing
Pray tell me who are yonder dashing ?”
— “ Sir Harry and Lord John no doubt ; —
Like dolphins they can swim about.”
— Aunt Tabby started with affright
When she beheld the horrid sight.
“ The thoughts of bathing thus I hate ; —
Nought can be so indelicate ; —
Besides a sailor, two leagues off,
May turn his glass, and spy and scoff :
And after all, I do not know
What good salt water can bestow.”
— “ Believe me, Ma'am, a daily dip
Will rubify the cheek and lip.
If you're too fat, 'twill make you thin,
And if the bones invade the skin,
'Twill in a month their sharpness cover,
And clothe them well with flesh all over.
The sea's the mill, that people mean,
To make the old grow young again.
Ladies, the machine is ready,
My wife prepar'd, the black horse steady ; —
Old Careful will the beast bestride,
And be your La'ship's Honour's guide.
O how delighted you will be
When you are splashing in the Sea.
And if to me you'll trust young Master,
I'll bear him safe from all disaster.”

“ Well then,” said Madam Bualetton,
“ Of the sea party I'll be one :
The girls shall also take their places,
And in its waves may wash their faces.”

‘ Tabby exclaim'd, “ If you should please
To play such silly freaks as these,
Why wives may take these liberties.
But, Sister, sure 'twill not be wise,
To let the girls employ their eyes
On such strange sights as they may see,
Not fit for either them or me.”

“ La, Aunt,” the smiling Misses cried,
“ We're, surely, not to be denied,

Poetical Sketches of Scarborough:

To do whate'er Mamma may do,
 For we hope to be married too,
 And so, Aunt Tabby, so do you." }

' Thus the old maid outvoted stood
 And watch'd the ebbings of the flood;
 But did not like to stand alone
 When all the rest of them were gone:
 So bribed the dame of a machine
 To let her sit awhile within.'

A visit to the Church and Church-yard produces some grave reflections from Mr. Papworth; and instead of hackneyed remarks on epitaphs, he introduces Edmund and the fair Ella on the scene, in an affecting and new strain of moralizing:

' Now, Edmund with fair Ella came,
 To view the scene, and tell his fame;
 For ev'ry church-yard yet is found
 A doubly consecrated ground,
 To Death and Love! — This path TO-DAY
 Is Love and Hymen's joyous way:
 When prostrate to the sacred pow'r
 Who blesses, with the blissful hour,
 Lovers before the altars bow,
 He hears the prayer, records the vow,
 And as the Priest his gifts dispense,
 To Virtue and to Innocence;
 Angels rejoice — for then is given,
 To man, a temporary Heaven.

' TO-MORROW! Hark! the dreadful bell,
 Tolls mournful, Life's departing knell:
 Now solemn, pensive footsteps tread,
 The dreary passage of the dead:
 That sigh, that tear, in anguish gave,
 Another victim to the grave.'

The Water-party describes a scene which, from change of weather, &c., often takes place in vessels hired for a day's pleasure at sea.

Tottergait, the prominent figure in this Scarbro' panorama, is introduced for the sake of humorous effect: but, like Dr. Syntax, he obtains our respect for his virtues.

These poetic Sketches will be read with avidity at the place to which they belong: but we have noticed several errors of the press in English, Latin, and Greek words; and some couplets that are very defective in point of quantity. In his Ode on the Castle, Mr. Wrangham says:

' Unsoftened, Southern spoil they seek:
 But O, foul foragers! this your freak.'

How

How easily might he have reduced this overgrown line to its proper length, thus :

‘ But foragers ! for this foul freak.’

Again, in the Cornelian Party, we read

‘ In June, when May-flowers, and May-flies
Paronomastically rise,’

where the first line is a foot or syllable too long.

Of inattention to rhyme, we shall adduce a solitary specimen which occurs at p. 88.

‘ Far from the petty jingling war,
Of housemaid and of housekeeper.’

Since this work may be considered in the light of a pictorial and poetical Scarborough Guide, a table of contents ought to have been given, with references to each plate and the annexed description. The drawings are in general well executed.

Art. XIV. *The Life of Arthur Murphy, Esq.* by Jessé Foot, Esq., his Executor. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Faulder. 1811.

FROM the present mode of manufacturing biography, it has grown into a very cumbrous and expensive article. The subject of the memoir is often rendered a kind of nucleus, around which a mass of matter, of various descriptions, is formed by aggregation, and that which at first was little more than a pebble swells to the magnitude of a rock. By the facile process of collecting the letters of relatives, friends, and acquaintance, and subjoining them to those of the person whose life is narrated, quartos are expeditiously formed : but great books of this description, if not great evils, are too costly ; and public critics, who have their time consumed in being forced to turn over pages of inanity, may be allowed to enter their protest against this practice of wasting the lives of the living by lengthening the lives of the dead. Mr. Murphy was ingenious as a writer, and entertaining as a companion and a correspondent : but, though he wished to descend with an honourable fame to posterity, he would not have liked to have been exhibited in the *chapter and verse* style in which he is displayed in the volume before us. He had prepared a brief and modest memoir of himself, which Mr. Foot has augmented to a volume containing more than 450 quarto pages. We applaud the warmth of the biographer's friendship, and we esteemed the hero of his narrative : but he has unnecessarily overwhelmed us with correspondence, and in some instances has exposed to the public eye letters which ought not to have been printed with-

out the consent of the writers. Some documents are properly admitted, and some specimens of Mr. Murphy's epistolary style would naturally be expected : but many of the letters of his correspondents might have been suppressed ; as well as digressions from the direct line of the narrative, and copies of pieces which the deceased never wished to be published. We shall briefly abstract the principal incidents in the life.

Arthur Murphy was the second son of James Murphy, merchant, at Dublin, and was born in December 1727 at Clooniquin, where his mother was staying at her brother's house. In 1729 the father perished on a voyage to America, and the widow removed with her children to London. Her circumstances were narrow, and she parted with her son Arthur in 1736 to her sister Mrs. Plunkett, who was settled at Boulogne, and who offered him the benefit of a foreign education. In 1738 he was accordingly sent to the school at Saint Omer's, where he made considerable classical attainments, and he returned to England in 1744. At that college he was known by the maternal name of French ; on account of some act of parliament which prohibits natives of the British dominions from being educated in Catholic seminaries abroad.

The next anecdote is remarkable, and shall be related in Mr. Murphy's own words :

' In July 1744, I arrived at my mother's in York-buildings. My eldest brother James soon came home from his morning walk, and embraced me with great affection. In a day or two after, my uncle Jeffrey French, then member of parliament for Milbourn Port, came to see me. He talked with me for some time about indifferent things ; and then, repeating a line from Virgil, asked me if I could construe it ? I told him I had the whole *Æneid* by heart. He made me repeat ten or a dozen lines, and then said, " If I have fifty acres of land to plough, and can only get two labouring men to work at two acres per day, how many days will it take to do the whole ? " " Sir ! " said I, staring at him ; " Can't you answer that question ? " said he ; " Then I would not give a farthing for all you know. Get Cocker's Arithmetic ; you may buy it for a shilling at any stall ; and mind me, young man, did you ever hear mass while you was abroad ? " " Sir, I did, like the rest of the boys. " " Then, mark my words ; let me never hear that you go to mass again ; it is a mean, beggarly, blackguard religion. " He then rose, stepped into his chariot, and drove away. My mother desired me not to mind his violent advice ; but my brother, who was educated at Westminster-school, spoke strongly in support of my uncle's opinion, and he never gave up the point till he succeeded to his utmost wish. '

In 1747, Mr. Murphy was placed as clerk in a merchant's counting-house at Cork : having meanwhile attended an academy

to learn book-keeping. In 1749, proposals were made to him to go out as agent to the West Indies, and superintend an estate which his uncle possessed in Jamaica. He came to London with this view, and for preparatory instruction attended at the counting-house of Alderman Ironside : but the plan was not executed ; apparently because young Murphy preferred London, books, leisure, and want of money, to wealth purchased by the dull cares of commerce abroad.

At the Bedford Coffee-house, Arthur Murphy became acquainted with Samuel Foote, with Sir John Hill, with Dr. Barrowby, and with Garrick ; and in October 1752 he began his career as an author, by publishing the first number of "The Gray's Inn Journal." In 1754 his uncle French died, without leaving to him even a legacy ; and as he was then in debt three hundred pounds, he was obliged to terminate his literary enterprize, and sought a maintenance by going on the stage. He first appeared at Covent-garden in the character of Othello : but Garrick transplanted him to Drury-lane ; brought out his farce called "*The Apprentice*," which is still popular ; and enabled him, by the success of that work, by his salary, and by a benefit, not merely to pay off his debts, but to put four hundred pounds in his pocket : with which sum, says Mr. M., 'I determined to quit the dramatic line,' in 1756.

In 1757, Mr. Murphy offered to enter himself as a student of the Middle Temple : but objections were made to his having exercised the profession of an actor. Mr. Fox, afterward Lord Holland, in favour of whose party Murphy endeavoured to found a news-paper called "*The Test*," applied to Lord Mansfield, by whose advice *Lincoln's Inn* was tried, and there Mr. M. was politely admitted. The following year produced the author's second farce, "*The Upholsterer*," which had prodigious success ; and in 1759 he altered from the French of Voltaire a tragedy intitled "*The Orphan of China*," to which the friendship of Garrick also secured a satisfactory reception. In 1760, Mr. Murphy produced "*The Desert Island*," which is now forgotten, and "*The Way to Keep Him*," which still deservedly keeps possession of the stage, and which supplied hints to the author of "*The School for Scandal*."

Three comic pieces, "*All in the Wrong*," "*The Citizen*," and "*The Old Maid*," were the fruit of the author's prolific pen in the following year.

Having been called to the bar in 1762, Mr. Murphy attached himself in 1763 to the Norfolk circuit ; which is celebrated less for the forensic talent which it has elicited, than for the number of its barristers who have excelled in other lines of pursuit. Probably, it supplies but a narrow sphere of practice :

Mr. Murphy, at least, returned to town with an empty purse ; and Foote said of him that he went the circuit in the stage-coach, and came home in the basket.

In 1764, however, Mr. Murphy made a successful *debut* as barrister in the cause *Menaton* and *Athawes* : but his theatrical passion was predominant ; and he wrote, in a lucky vein, "*Three Weeks after Marriage*." In 1768 he altered from the French of *Crebillon* the tragedy of *Zenobia* ; and at *Covent-garden*, in the year 1772, he brought out the original and meritorious tragedy of "*The Grecian Daughter*."—*Alzuma*, which was acted there in the following year, is but a garbled translation from *Voltaire*. The comedy of "*Know Your Own Mind*," which is the last and perhaps the best of his dramatic productions, appeared in 1777.

By the death of *Serjeant Whitaker*, Mr. Murphy became senior counsel on the *Norfolk* circuit, and in the absence of Mr. *Erskine* opened some action connected with the *Hurry* cause : but in 1787, in consequence of a disgust taken at Mr. *Partridge* being placed above him as King's counsel, he declined the circuit, sold in 1788 his chambers in *Lincoln's Inn*, and retired altogether from the bar.*

Mr. M. now purchased a residence at *Hammersmith*, and prepared his translation of *Tacitus* for the press, which was published in four quarto volumes during the summer of 1793. The tragedy of "*Arminius*," a translation of *Vida's* "*Cæsar*" and of *Vanière's* "*Bees*," a satire called "*The Force of Conscience*," "*The Life of Fielding*," "*The Life of Johnson*," and "*The Life of Garrick*," to which Mr. Murphy was preparing to add a life of *Foote*, employed at various times his active pen. The office of *Commissioner of Bankrupts* was conferred on him by *Lord Loughborough* : but it required a somewhat assiduous attendance, and the salary did not surround his declining years with comfort. As he was respected by the great luminaries of the law, who knew his worth and fitness for business, his biographer justly observes that it is strange that they did not appoint him a *Master in Chancery*, which office would have given him the income of a gentleman. Under the ministry of Mr. *Addington*, (now *Lord Sidmouth*,) in the year 1803, Mr. Murphy received from his Majesty, altogether unsolicited, a pension of 200*l.* : this bounty, however, was insufficient ; and in the conclusion of life he was far from enjoying that *otium cum dignitate* with which we wish the career of genius and virtue to close. His biographer laments that he permitted opportunities of rendering himself in-

* It is stated that the fees which Mr. Murphy received during his practice at the bar amounted to 10,744*l.* 1*5s.*

dependent to pass by him; and 'that a great part of the prime of his life, when he might have seized many advantages, was consumed and mouldered away in the service of others.' When, subsequently, he resided in a lodging at Knightsbridge, he was made a benchet of Lincoln's Inn: but they who conferred on him this honour should previously have taken care to have furnished him with a more lucrative office than that of Commissioner of Bankrupts, which produced to him no more than 140l. per annum. His will was executed on the 5th June 1805, at Knightsbridge; and it conferred on the author of this volume the office of executor, the duties of which he so profusely and piously fulfils. Mr. Murphy died on the 18th June 1805, and was buried near his mother at Hammersmith.*

Such is a short sketch of the principal facts which occur in the course of this biography; and which, as we have already observed, is throughout authenticated by copious quotations from the manuscript-remains and correspondence of Mr. Murphy. In particular, the narrative is distended to exuberance by the quantity of vouchers and documents which are adduced in proof of the rehearsal and exhibition of the several plays. Not fewer than three notes from Mr. Garrick are given at pp. 214, 215., which respect the commonest preparations for *Zenobia*. Of this tragedy, Mr. Foot speaks inaccurately, (p. 213.) as if it had suggested itself to Mr. Murphy during the translation of Tacitus; whereas it was published in 1768, and Crebillon's original play, whence this is a mere version, appears among his works already collected in 1750.

An interesting memorandum is preserved (p. 429.) of the commencement of Mr. Murphy's collections towards a life of Foote, to which the editor has subjoined some observations in order to complete the portrait. As the present biographer observes that Mr. M. had 'obtained the best account of Foote's early life,' we shall extract these particulars:

"Samuel Foote was born (I believe, but that may easily be ascertained by the register,) about the year 1721, at Truro, in Cornwall: his father, who was an attorney, and sometime member for Tiverton in Devonshire, had considerable places under Government:

* His executor has erected a monument to his memory, with the following inscription:

"Sacred to the Memory of Arthur Murphy, Esq., a Barrister at Law of distinguished character: a Dramatic Poet of great celebrity: a Classical Scholar of rare attainment: a Political Writer of no common consideration: a Loyal Subject, and a Sincere Christian. — This eminent man died on the 18th of June 1805, in the 78th year of his age, and is interred near this spot, in the same vault with his mother, Mrs. Jane Murphy."

his mother was of the antient family of the Dineleys, of Charlton in Worcestershire, who married with the Gooderes, of Burghope in Herefordshire: both of these families were of an excentric turn of mind, which Mr. Foote appears to have inherited and preserved to the last.

"These connexions brought him to the college-school at Worcester, under the Reverend Mr. Miles, from whence he was elected scholar of Worcester-college, Oxford, being founder's kin, about the year 1737.

"In 1739, being indisposed, he was advised to go to Bath, where he soon made acquaintance with gamesters and men of pleasure. On returning to college, with two footmen and a ridiculous quantity of laced clothes, he was reprov'd by the Provost; when, finding a college life not suited to his genius, he quitted it in 1740, but without any public censure.

"He had an early turn for mimickry and acting. When at school, he was frequently invited by the Sandys's, the Harrie's, or others of his relations, to dine with them on Sundays: the consequence was, that Monday morning was spent in taking off every part of the family which entertained him, to the no small diversion of all the boys, but generally to their cost; as hardly any boy ever learned his lesson that morning.

"He is said, when at Oxford, to have acted Punch, in disguise. But I remember, in one of his excursions from London to Oxford, which jaunts he made very often, spending an evening with him in company with Martin Madan, Walter Shirley, and others. Those gentlemen and himself acted Punch, for a wager, and the company all agreed that Foote was the worst performer of the three.

"Foote's great acquaintance, both at school and college, was one Trott; and they went together upon many expeditions.

"His second brother was a clergyman of Exeter-college, Oxon.

"In the interval, from the time of his leaving college and coming upon the stage, he was frequently in great distress. He was once confined for debt in the Fleet; and, I believe, released by an act of insolvency: at the same time, one Waite was there confined for cheating the Bank. An old school-fellow told me he dined with him there on turbot, venison, and claret, and never spent a cheerfuller day; for, while Waite found money, Mr. Foote furnished wit, jollity, and humour. His first essay, as an author, was written about this time; it was a pamphlet giving an account of one of his uncles, who was executed for murdering his other uncle.

"In one of his excursions to Oxford with a certain lady, for whom he afterwards procured an husband, he drove a coach and six greys. This lady, was afterwards married, and Mr. Foote handsomely rewarded for his trouble. He rented Charlton-house, the family-seat in Worcestershire, where he lived in some splendour for about a year and a half. During his magnificence there he invited his old school-master, Mr. Miles, to dine with him, who, admiring his service of plate and well-furnished side-board, very innocently asked Mr. Foote what it might cost? Indeed, says he, I know not, but sure I am, I shall soon know what it will bring."

Notice

Notice is very properly taken of Mr. Murphy's talents as a companion; and it is observed that his deportment and conversation endeared him to society, especially to the most enviable part of it, the fair sex. No person, indeed, could be in his company without acknowledging his manners to be those of a gentleman and a scholar. To shew how much he captivated the ladies, a letter to him from Miss Lewin, is inserted at p. 413., another from Miss Phipps, at p. 379., and another of a more playful kind from Miss Dionessa Sarah Goate of Brent Ely Hall, with a still more lively postscript by her sister, Mrs. Ranby, at p. 387. These communications are introduced to prove that the ladies who wrote them were pleasing and sprightly characters: but we are inclined to think that the biographer was not at liberty to publish them without the consent of the parties.

Mr. Foot makes a fair and honourable report of the general respect which attended his hero in his walk through life:

'It is impossible to consider the talents of Mr. Murphy, without observing to what various and contrasted objects he applied them; and in every point to which they were directed, he made new accessions to his literary character. — It may be truly said of him, what Dr. Johnson has said of Goldsmith, "Nullum fere scribendi genus non tetigit: nullum quod tetigit non ornavit." His biographical labours alone would have established him as a man of genius, taste, and erudition. If the lives of Fielding and Johnson had been his only works, his name would have obtained a place among the first biographical writers of his country; and he would have shared in the fame of the pre-eminent men whose characters he has so ably illustrated.' —

'I have had many opportunities of ascertaining how Mr. Murphy, during his career as a barrister, was considered amongst his brethren of the law: and I have found that this walk of his life was so pure, so friendly, so social, so communicative, and so enviable, that in his latter days, and in his private reflections, he must have drawn from it no common consolation.

'When he was not worried by the cares of life, he passed his days as a scholar and a gentleman, and was admirably formed for social conversation. He never took the lead in company: he never shewed himself off, as it is called; but rather courted attention by a modest civility of deportment. When, however, he had formed a serious opinion upon any subject which he thoroughly understood, no power in that case would ever make him give it up. His conversation was never associated with licentious freedoms or any sorts of oaths.* Nothing he disliked more than vulgarities. His social life was an example of morality. Many of his private hours were

* If Mr. Foot be correct in this statement, according to the precise meaning of the word *oath*, still the reader must not receive the representation in all its general latitude. Mr. Murphy was too remarkable for the frequent use of *profane exclamations*, at least, in his conversation; some of which are recorded by Mr. F. himself. *Rev.*

employed in extracting from authors, precepts of moral philosophy ; and it is a proof that he applied to these from his pure love of them ; as although he has recorded in his memorandum-books a large collection upon this subject, yet it does not appear that he ever intended to publish it. It was merely a fund for enlarging his own stock of intellectual amusement. When the season was fair, he would, to the last, take that necessary refreshment, which the contemplative mind particularly wants. He would take long walks in the evening, and call on his neighbours. In his attendance at Guildhall, as Commissioner of Bankrupts, he was very assiduous. His being content with such an office, bespoke the disposition of his mind ; an office which no one could discover that he thought below his merit. His law-suits, it must be acknowledged, were not always necessary ; and they were very harassing and vexatious to his mind. With a temper much disturbed by these suits, and a constitution enfeebled by some severe attacks, he appeared abroad rather negligent in his person, and in a mood of thoughtfulness : but, on the approach of a friend, he would brighten up, and discover that he had a natural power of overcoming care. To see him in a morning in his study was to find him looking to the greatest advantage. No man was ever more comfortable at home ; but abroad, his appearance might have induced an opinion that he experienced a want of the comforts of life.

Here Mr. Foot has acknowledged the *irritability* of his friend, which appeared even in his better days : but latterly it much increased, and was the cause of great vexation to himself and regret to his friends. Mr. F. has preserved one proof of it, the insertion of which is as little creditable to his own judgment as the style of it is to the temper of the writer. We mean an attack on this Review for its report of Mr. Murphy's translated poem of the *Bees*, in Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 252. Mr. M. had in reality no ground for complaint of that article ; and he, who well knew the integrity of the Monthly Review, ought not to have expected from it undue praise at the expence of public deception : yet his displeasure is expressed in language which is very inconsistent with the old *friendship* of which the biographer speaks, and strangely incompatible with his own situation as a coadjutor in our work, which Mr. Foot also proclaims. — Numerous instances might be brought to prove the reverse of Mr. F.'s assertion, also, that 'it is the very spirit of the Review never to admit a reply.' From Mr. Murphy himself we recollect no tender of remonstrance ; and though he gratified his spleen by penning the remarks in question, he probably never meant them to see the light. We can trust our cause with any impartial person who reads the poem, the article, and the hypercriticism.

Much more amiable traits of Mr. Murphy's character are found in his honourable conduct respecting his brother's affairs, in his benevolent

benevolent efforts in favor of old Macklin, and in his grateful remembrance of his college-tutor at St. Omer's, the Rev. Thomas Stanley. In the year 1797, in consequence of the French Revolution, this gentleman sought refuge in England, and resided at Lulworth Castle, Dorsetshire; and when Mr. Murphy was informed that this venerable man was alive, he took up his pen, after an interval of sixty-one years, (which period had elapsed since he was sent to St. Omer's,) to acknowledge his obligations to his tutor. The correspondence which passed on this occasion places the pupil and the master in a light so creditable to both, that we have pleasure in making room for a part of it:

‘ TO THE REVEREND MR. STANLEY.

‘ Sir, — The name at the foot of this letter, I fear, will not call to your mind the faintest idea of the writer; but when I add that many years ago I was known to you by the name of Arthurus French, I hope, that some recollection of the person will occur to you. My obligations to my master and preceptor for no less than six years, at the college of St. Omer's, have often recurred to me; but I never knew where or how to address a line to you, till a few days since; when Mr. Eyre, a most worthy acquaintance, and who, I find, is nearly related to you, accidentally mentioned your name, and told me, that he knew my youth had been formed under your tuition. I will not attempt to express the sensations that rose in my breast on that occasion: all I shall say is, that the pleasures of my juvenile days, and the gradual openings of a very young mind, under your guiding care, all rushed upon me at once: I spoke of you to Mr. Eyre in the fulness of my heart.

‘ To hear of you, Sir, in this unexpected manner, was a stroke of surprise which could be exceeded by nothing but the pleasure it gave me when I was told that you were happily situated, and in perfect health, in Dorsetshire. Mr. Eyre favoured me with your direction, and I immediately and fully resolved to trouble you with a letter, in order to express my most unfeigned thanks for the education I received under your auspices. It is to that education that I am indebted for all the pleasures of my life: from you, Sir, I imbibed an early taste for literature, and, I will add, for morals. From that source has flowed whatever of happiness I have known, ever since you embraced me at the college-gate, on the morning when I left St. Omer's. *Quod spiro et placeo (si placeo!) tuum est.* I will only add to this tedious epistle, that I have published a collection of miscellaneous productions, and also a translation of the works of Tacitus, in four volumes. Will you permit me to send the volumes to you as an offering from the scholar whom you formed?

‘ A favourable answer to this request will most sensibly oblige him who, full of all due respect, esteem, and affection, for the best of masters, has the honour to subscribe himself, Sir,

‘ Your most grateful pupil and most obedient humble servant,

‘ ARTHUR MURPHY.

‘ *Hammer-smith Terrace, Middlesex, Dec. 7. 1797.*

‘ FROM THE REVEREND MR. THOMAS STANLEY.

‘ Dear Sir, — Your very kind and very obliging letter has given me greater pleasure than you can imagine. I perfectly recollect your person under the name of French, and much more so under the name of Murphy. I had long ago heard that your name stood very high in the list of those gentlemen who professed literature, and that your productions in this kind were very much applauded. You may be assured, that this pleased me exceedingly. However, you seem to give me credit for what I but little deserve on this score. Your reputation is owing to your bright genius, and the superior talents with which God has favoured you. You manifest the effusions of a good and grateful heart, when you express your most unfeigned thanks for the education you received under my auspices : when you say, that to that education you are indebted for all the pleasures of your life, and that from me you imbibed an early taste for literature, and also for morals. If I have contributed to these advantages, I am extremely glad. I shall only add, that it shall be my constant prayer to Almighty God, that he will be pleased to bestow upon you all possible happiness, both for time and for eternity ; into the latter of which my great age reminds me that I am soon to enter.

‘ You are so very obliging as to desire, that I will permit you to send me the volumes you mention in your kind letter. I answer, without any apology, which perhaps might be proper on the occasion, that you may send them ; and I shall receive them with my most hearty thanks and grateful acknowledgments for so handsome and so valuable a present. These volumes will be always dear and precious to me ; because they are your productions, and the fruit of that genius which, from your partiality to me, you are pleased to say I carefully cultivated with success. I shall also cherish them, as they will be a standing token of your regard and friendship for me. I remain with the greatest respect, esteem, and affection, Dear Sir, Your most obliged and humble servant,

‘ *Lulworth Castle, Dec. 16. 1797.*

‘ THOMAS STANLEY.’

With the exceptions which we have already stated, gratitude is due to Mr. Foot for the detail of research, the compilation of document, and the patience of composition, which characterize this memorial. We hope that to the reputation of his friend he will pay the farther tribute of collecting, in a series of volumes, the *original* dramatic works of Mr. Murphy. His tragedies are mostly translations, and not of the superior class : but his comic works display a force of genius and a portraiture of manners, which the language should endeavour to retain. Comedy is by its nature more fugitive than tragedy. Ridicule attached to living manners may partly wither with the petals of those gaudy flowers which its pungency was intended to blight : but there are characters which outlast the manners of this or that generation, which are perennial forms of human nature, and
which

which spring up afresh in every new crop of men : the ridicule, therefore, which twines about these, is evergreen,—is immortal. In felicity of situation, and rotundity of plot, Mr. Murphy is more habitually successful than in the style of his dialogue ; which has not all the urbanity, or the rapidity of impression, that are obtained in the newer and more refined comedies of the next generation of writers. His success was partly due to the friendship of a popular manager, and to that observant ingress at the Green Room which led him carefully to suit all his plays to the actual strength of the house. Every good actor found in them a part adapted to his relative consequence.

Two portraits of Mr. Murphy, and *fac-similes* of his handwriting, each at distant periods of his life, accompany this volume : besides a portrait of Miss Elliot : but it has no Index.

ART. XV. *Treatise on the Influence of Climate on the human Species ; and on the Varieties of Men resulting from it ; including an Account of the Criteria of Intelligence which the Form of the Head presents ; and a Sketch of a rational System of Physiognomy as founded on Physiology.* By N. C. Pitta, M.D. Physician at Madeira, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 91. and Six Plates. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

ALTHOUGH this treatise exhibits some degree of ingenuity, and displays some extent of information, it is so very largely imbued with vague and dashing hypotheses, as to convey but an unfavorable opinion of the judgment of the writer. He commences his speculations even in his preface, and entertains us with some curious, and, we believe, quite novel ideas respecting the constitution of the particles of matter. These he supposes must be of two kinds, the first consisting of spherical particles of some real magnitude, the other of mere points. ‘Two such orders,’ he says, ‘must exist, because, on one hand, without some difference, individual bodies could not be characterized ; and, on the other, it is unphilosophical to suppose more than two such orders, because from these, every distinction in nature may arise.’ These two kinds of matter, the spheres and the points, are imagined to constitute oxygen and hydrogen respectively ; and it is conceived that, by this notion, their most remarkable qualities may be explained, with the principal phænomena which result from them. The author then proceeds to shew how the lightness, inflammability, and other acknowledged properties of hydrogen, coincide with his hypothesis : but we cannot deem it necessary to dwell any longer on the consideration of what is so entirely gratuitous.

The treatise itself is divided into four parts, the first of which relates to the influence of climate in general. The facts and observations

servations here brought forwards are intended to prove that all the varieties, now discoverable in the human species, may have been the effect of climate: but the only decisive circumstances mentioned are those which refer to the color of the skin; for which it is by far the most easy to account, and which, if admitted, does not throw any light on the more difficult parts of the investigation. The reasoning in the first section is indeed feeble and unsatisfactory.

Part II. is intitled, 'Of the particular Effects which Climate thus produces, and of the Classification of the Species which result from it.' This chapter is principally occupied in the development of the systems of Camper and Blumenbach, who adopted certain anatomical differences of structure in the cranium as the basis of their classification of the varieties of the human race. Since this part contains little or nothing which professes to be original, we shall proceed to the third chapter, in which the author advances some of his peculiar opinions. One of the most important of them is that the cerebellum may be regarded as the organ of loco-motion. Volition and loco-motion are functions supposed to depend on the same structure, and to be intimately connected with each other; and the following train of reasoning is employed to prove that they have their specific seat in the cerebellum:

'As sensation and volition seem exactly opposed to each other, so is the face, containing the organs of sense, to the cavity containing the cerebellum. This analogy also attends their situation in all animals; for as, in the inferior classes, the face advances, so the cerebellum uniformly recedes, and both are generally separated from the cerebrum, either by membranes, or by bony plates. Several animals have a bony tentorium between the cerebrum and cerebellum, as they have bony plates between the cerebrum and face; others (most birds) have only membranes between the cerebrum and face, as they have a membranous tentorium between the cerebrum and cerebellum.

'The cerebellic cavity, moreover, seems uniformly to commence on the inside of the base of the cranium, exactly opposite to the place where the face, or lower jaw, terminates on the outside.

'Now, from the peculiar opposition which subsists between the situation of the face and cerebellum, we are intitled to expect a similar opposition in their functions. As the face, therefore, occupied by the chief organs of sense, is the seat of sensation, so we might expect the cerebellum to be the seat of motion, or rather the organ of volition.'

Difficult as it may be to submit such an hypothesis to certain proof, it will probably be conceived to have some analogies and plausibilities in its favour: but we fear that we cannot bestow even this share of commendation on the next hypothetical doctrine which is broached; viz. that a broad cranium is connected with

with a mathematical genius, and a high or elevated one with poetical fancy:

‘ In confirmation of this, it is worthy of notice, that considerable breadth of the upper part of the head is allowed, even by the most superficial observer, to give an air of sagacity; while great elevation, especially of the forehead, as in Charles XII., and a multitude of great men, gives a strong impression of imagination. Even in inanimate objects, breadth gives the appearance of stability and permanence—terms which, though here physically used, are by the very habitude of language, in a moral sense, applied rather to calculatory or mathematical talent—to sagacity than to imagination; and, in the same objects, height gives the appearance of lightness and elegance—terms which, though here physically used, are also by the habitude of language, in a moral sense, applied rather to imagination than to sagacity. Hence, it is with strong reason, that breadth of cranium is here supposed to indicate stability and permanence, and height, lightness and elegance, or brilliance and intensity of function.’

We have next a still more fanciful and far-fetched speculation. Blumenbach has observed that, in females, the space *before* the pituitary gland, and in males the space *behind* it, is proportionably large with respect to the rest of the cranium:

‘ Now, in the anterior part of the cavity, (says Dr. P.,) are lodged those medullary fasciculi, through which impressions ascend to the common sensorium; and in the posterior, those through which they descend. Hence, it is *probable*, that the ascending impressions are stronger in the male; the descending, in the female. And, in perfect conformity with this, we find that more numerous and stronger impressions in the male, more rarely and weakly excite emotions and passions; whereas fewer and slighter impressions in the female, more frequently and more strongly excite emotions and passions.’

It is on these and some other principles of a like nature, and resting on a similar kind of foundation, that the present author erects his system of physiognomy; from which he attempts to develop the characters of individuals, as well as of different species or varieties, by the form of the cranium. We have already admitted that the work displays some talents, and we will add that it may afford some amusement in the perusal; but we think that the basis, on which the hypotheses are erected, is by much too feeble for the weighty superstructure that is imposed on it.

Dr. Pitta naturally refers to the system of Gall, and he animadverts on it with great severity; yet he acknowledges that occasionally, ‘unscientific and empirical though it be, in a few instances he has approached the truth.’ He then adduces several cases in which, either ‘empirically or accidentally,’ Gall has assigned to the different powers of the mind very nearly

nearly the same situations which they occupy in Dr. P.'s own system ; and indeed, notwithstanding the severity of Dr. Pitta towards his rival, the principal difference which we can perceive is that he has wisely dealt more in generals, and ventured less on minute and particular details, than the German physiologist.

ART. XVI. *An Essay tending to shew the Impolicy of the Laws of Usury.* By Andrew Green, LL.B. 8vo. pp. 20. 1s. Cradock & Co.

MR. Green begins by laying down the general proposition that there is no natural standard for the rate of any article, except such as is determined by the proportion of the supply and the demand. This is unquestionably the usual rule of business : but to its application with regard to the interest of money several very specious objections have been urged. These we shall briefly notice in their order. One of them is that the law ought to prefer the accommodation of the active and useful trader to that of the indolent capitalist : but why, asks Mr. Green, should not the law as well interfere between the tenant and the landholder, by fixing a maximum on the rent of land ? Another plea, equally specious, is that the want of a limitation on the rate of interest would tend to encourage imprudent speculation : but this we may safely leave to the merchant himself, in the confidence that speculation will not be long prosecuted unless the probable advantage be more than equal to the hazard. A third allegation, of the same stamp, is that, if no limitation be placed on the rate of interest, adventurers will outbid the prudent trader, and engross the whole capital of the country. This argument would suppose the lender to be a stranger to every thing like caution. Now we may take it for granted that, for his own sake, he will pay attention to the responsibility of his debtor, without any admonition on the part of the law : but a reason more generally maintained is that of preventing an avaricious capitalist from taking advantage of the distresses of embarrassed persons. The fact is that, in this respect, the operation of the law is directly contrary to its intention, and forms an aggravation of the distress which it professes to relieve. It forbids the capitalist to demand a greater interest from the distressed than from the affluent man. What then is he to do ? is he to accommodate the former at the usual interest ? that he *will not* do ; so that the consequence is that this *friendly* law prevents relief altogether. — The last plea which we shall notice, in favour of

the limitation of the rate of interest, is connected with our funding-system. It is good, say some persons, because it enables government to obtain loans on easier terms. Very true, if the advantage of government be distinct from the advantage of the public : but it is a new kind of doctrine that would manœuvre the nation into a bargain against itself. All these arguments proceed on the supposition that the stock of capital in the country is fixed and determined : but the truth is that it is in a state of continual fluctuation ; and nothing tends more to retard its increase, than an injudicious interference with the profit that may be derived from it.

So far Mr. Green. — Those who have read Mr. Bentham's book, (see Review, Vol. lxxviii. p. 361.) or who have adverted to the ideas thrown out by us in our recent article on Mr. Sugden's pamphlet *, will observe that Mr. G., however judicious as far as he goes, has not taken the higher ground of which his question admits. All that he says is true : but he might, with perfect propriety, have said a great deal more. No measure of which we are aware would be productive of a larger increase to the national capital, or, in other words, to the national power, than the abolition of the unfortunate limitation of the rate of interest. Many useful projects are by this restriction checked in their origin, and long postponed, if not totally lost to society. It should never be forgotten that the lender of money has an equal title with every other dealer to make the best of his commodity. This will be admitted by most people, but few are aware that the course which we recommend is calculated eventually to *lower* the rate of interest. It would lower it, however, and in the same way that the rate of other things is lowered, — by encouraging competition. At present, the capitalist locks up his money in the funds, or in mortgage ; and the borrower, who has no such securities to offer, must either forego the use of capital, or resort to the ruinous expedient of raising money at double interest in the shape of an annuity. Were the hands of the capitalist free, he would lend at various rates, either at 5, 6, or 7 per cent., according to the degree of hazard ; and the facility thus afforded to active traders could not fail of increasing the general wealth of the country : while the longer profit to the capitalist would augment his own stock, or, by consequence, the extent of his accommodation to borrowers.

* See our last Number.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, For SEPTEMBER, 1813.

JUNIUS.

Art. 17. *The Life of the Author of the Letters of Junius, the Rev. James Wilmot, D.D.*, late Fellow of Trinity-college, Oxford, Rector of Barton on the Heath, and Aulcester, Warwickshire, and one of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace for that County. With Portrait, Fac-similes, &c. By his Niece, Olivia Wilmot Serres. 8vo. pp. 224. 16s. Boards. Williams. 1813.

We have seldom, in the course of a long observation of literary publications, seen an assertion brought forwards with more confidence than that which maintains the identity of Junius and the late Dr. James Wilmot. The title of the present volume, the inscription under the portrait, the words of the dedication, and the tone of the prefatory remarks, all come under the description of very positive allegation. Mrs. Serres, it seems, when a girl of fourteen, had taken a book of MS. from her uncle, Dr. Wilmot, for the purpose of 'scribbling on the blank leaves;' and being afraid of incurring his displeasure, she concealed the book, which had the effect of saving it from the ravages of a general combustion, to which Dr. W., it is said (p. 22.) unmercifully devoted his MSS. two years before his death. On the evidence afforded by this MS. is founded the claim set up for Dr. W. to the honour of the name of Junius. 'Enemies unquestionably will start up,' says Mrs. Serres, p. 35., 'to impede, if possible, the progress of truth; but, clothed by that just principle, as if in a coat of mail, she will meet every opposition to her statements, confident of the integrity of her sentiments.' This sentence may be taken as a fair specimen of the style of the volume: but we have no hesitation in acquitting Mrs. S. of the fulsome passages with which it abounds, and assigning them to the pen of some hackneyed writer. In the dedication, for example, Mrs. S. is made to say to the Marquis of Blandford, 'could the spirit of the departed Junius revisit this nether world, with how much satisfaction would he behold his once favourite niece, enjoying the favour of that patronage your Lordship has so kindly condescended to bestow!' A niece of Junius could not have *thought* this.

We may spare our readers the trouble of following us through the long detail of party and personal incidents which fill up this volume. Those who may, for a moment, have entertained the notion that Dr. Wilmot was the author of the Letters of Junius, have only to fix their attention on the various requisites necessary to confer a title to that distinction, and to see whether they are united in the character of this comparatively obscure clergyman. These requisites are explained rather fully in our extracts from Mr. Woodfall's late publication, in our Number for August last. — A profile of Dr. W. is prefixed to this volume: but, whether it be owing to our deficient taste, or not, we must confess ourselves unable to discover, in the good natured physiognomy of this worthy person, any portion of the fire that animated the letters of Junius. — We take leave accordingly of the subject, by consigning the present attempt to the fate awarded by Sir Philip

Francis

Francis to the effort made to fix the Letters of Junius on him and his father.

Art. 18. *An Inquiry concerning the Author of the Letters of Junius*; in which it is proved, by internal, as well as by direct and satisfactory Evidence, that they were written by the late Right Hon. Edmund Burke. By John Roche, Esq.; an honorary Member, and formerly President of the Royal Physical Society of Edinburgh, &c. 8vo. pp. 294. 8s. Boards. Carpenter. 1813.

Another attempt to discover the author of the letters of Junius! Where, in the name of wonder, will such efforts end? Mr. Roche commences by ridiculing the various foolish conjectures on this subject; one of which, he says, (p. 7.) maintained that our gracious Sovereign was the only person in England who could write the style of Junius, and that he was considered in his own family as the author of the letters! A rumour of a very different nature had assigned them to the humble pen of the late Mr. Suett, of facetious histrionic memory! By ascribing them to Mr. Burke, Mr. Roche has endeavoured to gain credit for that which has long been matter of suspicion, although opposed by contradictory circumstances of great weight. He describes himself as having devoted much time, in a retired situation, to reading and comparing Mr. Burke's political works with the Letters of Junius; the consequence of which was a conviction that the great objection, originating in dissimilarity of style, is of less weight than the world has imagined; and with the hope of making the public a convert to his opinion, Mr. Roche transcribes, through more than 170 pages, passages of greater or less resemblance from the respective works of Burke and Junius. He endeavours to trace coincidence of ideas, of style, and even of habitual errors, pursuing the comparison into a variety of minute, and, as some persons will think, weak and untenable points. He ought to have admitted, however, that the "Thoughts on public Discontents," the production of Burke from which he makes the largest extracts, was written nearly twenty years after the appearance of the Letters of Junius; and the latter had, accordingly, been during all that time open to the imitation of parliamentary speakers and writers, so that correspondence in style and sentiment affords no particular presumption of identity. He adduces, it must be confessed, (p. 207.) somewhat of a more direct argument in tracing the analogy between a speech of Burke, on the 24th of December, 1767, and a communication, a day or two afterward, from Junius to the editor of the Public Advertiser: but the circumstance is an insulated one, and liable to several objections when brought forwards as evidence.

If Mr. Burke was so particularly desirous of concealing himself as Junius, why did he transmit his letters to Mr. Woodfall under the signature (C) which he had previously adopted in conveying a speech which was one of his avowed productions? Any weight that may be attached to Mr. Roche's conclusions on this subject must be lessened by the stress which we perceive him ready to lay (p. 225, &c.) on imaginary or insignificant circumstances. The argument drawn from the constancy of Burke's residence in London (p. 274.) is of too general a nature; and it is not to be supposed (p. 292.) that,

that, in an affair of such secrecy, the tutor of Mr. Burke's son should be enabled 'to tell before-hand at what time a Junius would appear'. Mr. Roche combats, and with some success, the arguments adduced against his theory from the opposition in political opinion between Mr. Burke and Junius. — The characteristics of his composition, however, were copiousness of idea and elevation of diction : while those of Junius consisted in an accurate knowledge of particular facts, with comparatively little exercise in general conclusions. Burke is a man of reading and imagination, who pours forth his stores irregularly, but from an ample repository ; Junius is a pleader, who is skilful beyond measure in turning to account a limited portion of argument. Burke was always deemed fitter for declamation than action ; Junius has all the discrimination and precision of a man of business.

It is evident that Mr. Roche is sincere in his belief : but the objections to it are, in our eyes, almost insurmountable barriers to the adoption of his theory. The fact, however, might be definitively settled by a comparison, on the part of a person skilled in handwriting, between the many remaining specimens of Mr. Burke's penmanship and the manuscripts of Junius in the possession of Mr. Woodfall.

POLITICS.

Art. 19. *The Re-establishment of an effective Balance of Power,* stated to be the only solid Basis of a general and permanent Peace. By Thomas Moore Musgrave, Esq. 8vo. pp. 83. Hatchard. 1813.

A disquisition on the balance of power is particularly interesting at a moment when this is the anxious object of so many cabinets. Mr. Musgrave has analyzed the subject much more closely than it is generally investigated by the readers of the fashionable vehicles of political intelligence ; and his style, though sometimes inflated and peculiar, is not deficient in animation or perspicuity. His ardent desire is that the allied powers should pronounce, with one voice, that the extension of the French empire beyond the Rhine and the Pyrenees is incompatible with the liberties of Europe ; and that they should set aside, for a season, all separate objects, in the hope of accomplishing this grand result. A declaration to this effect, he thinks, would have a very beneficial influence ; and it is perfectly clear that the accomplishment of the principal end would pave the way for the individual benefit of each co-operating power, inasmuch as it would be the means of re-establishing its political independence. Reasoning from the augmented means of Russia, and the revived independence of Austria and Prussia, as well as from the general patriotism of the German nation, Mr. Musgrave is of opinion that the contest, if pursued with unanimity, might lead to a result much more successful than that which has commonly attended coalitions. These general views are supported by illustrations of the particular circumstances of the different states, which discover a more than superficial knowledge of their local resources. In speaking, for example, of Saxony, Mr. M. points out the contrast between the spirit of the people and the policy of

of the court ; a policy the more remarkable because the aged ruler of Saxony forms, in his habits and pursuits, a complete contrast to Bonaparte : he is a benevolent and pacific prince, fond of study, and intimately acquainted with various departments of literature and science.

We cordially wish success to the course which Mr. M. recommends, but we think that he lays too much stress on the degree of power which he imagines to be consequent on the acquisition of territory. We very much regret that France ever extended her acquisitions beyond the Rhine ; yet we are far from considering as a solid attainment the controul possessed over a country which is animated with hereditary hatred to the French name, and likely to require a strong military force to keep it in subjection.

Art. 20. *The impending Ruin of the British Empire ; its Cause and Remedy considered.* By Hector Campbell. 8vo. pp. 96. Wilson. 1813.

Mr. Campbell is a determined opponent of war, of corn-laws, and of taxes. He begins by arguing that the distress of the poor, from a great rise in the price of bread, goes much farther than we should be led to calculate from the average returns of our markets ; he maintains that the occurrence of a single season of dearth, without a correspondent rise in the rate of wages, has the effect of obliging the lower orders to pawn, and even to sell, various articles which they are afterward unable to recover ; and he adds that the public were surprised to find that, in 1803, the number of persons receiving parish-relief in England and Wales exceeded one million. At the present season of diminished trade and augmented expence, Mr. Campbell goes so far as to suppose that the number of paupers is almost double its amount in the year 1803. Unfortunately, however, he allows a spirit of party and a vehemence of expression to disfigure his writing, and to weaken the effect of his conclusions on the mind of the deliberate reader. Not contented with simply exposing the evils of our borough-system, he alleges (p. 12.) that the ‘rotten borough-mongers and their friends are in possession of the loaves which have been lost by the fundholders and annuitants at large.’—He is a decided enemy of the reasoning of Mr. Malthus, and discovers considerable ingenuity even in those points (as p. 48., when treating of the interest of the national debt,) on which he is erroneous or exaggerated in his inferences.

The practical object of Mr. C.’s labours seems to be (p. 81. *et seq.*) a recommendation of corn as a standard of value, instead of money. With this view, a correspondence is introduced towards the end of the pamphlet, between the author and a country-clergyman who felt considerable objections to the new project, and who states them in a manner which affords Mr. Campbell an opportunity of answering them with success. That money is not a fit standard of value for long pending transactions is sufficiently clear from the experience of the present age. How greatly have the provisions made twenty years ago, for widows and families, by investments in the funds, fallen from their former value ; and how different would have been the result had the money been placed in land ! It is just, however, to admit that the income received has in one case been four or five per cent., while in the other

it can scarcely be called above three or four. How far corn would supply a proper standard is by no means clear. If Mr. Campbell, and those who think with him, would take more time before they form a conclusion, they would probably see the propriety of introducing other articles into the computation proposed as the basis for such comprehensive results.

As we like the facts and statements brought forwards by this writer much better than his reasoning, we extract the following table of progressive changes in the situation of journeymen artisans in London. It explains the actual rate of their wages in money during the last twenty years, and contains a calculation of the use which the artisan was enabled to make of the amount in the purchase of bread. It is said to represent more particularly the situation of journeymen-tailors: but it is applicable, with little variation, to the mass of journeymen in other lines of business:

Years.	Price of bread.	Money wages per week.		Its value in quartern loaves.	Weekly loss in loaves.	Moneyvalue of thirty-six quartern loaves.	
	d.	s.	d.			s.	d.
1777	7½	21	9	36	—	21	9
1794	12½	21	9	21½	14½	36	9
1795	12½	25		24½	11½	36	9
1796	8½	25		35½	—	25	6
1797	9½	25		31½	4½	28	6
1798	8	25		37½	—	24	
1799	13	25		23½	12½	39	
1800	17½	25		17½	18½	52	6
1801	17½	27		18½	17½	52	6
1802	10	27		32½	3½	30	
1803	9½	27		33½	2½	29	3
1804	9½	27		33½	2½	29	3
1805	14½	27		21½	14½	44	3
1806	12	27		27	9	36	
1807	11½	30		30½	5½	35	3
1808	12½	30		29½	6½	36	9
1809	14½	30		24½	11½	43	6
1810	15½	33		25½	10½	45	9
1811	15	33		26½	9½	45	
1812	17½	33		22½	13½	53	3
1813	18½	36		23½	12½	55	6

'N. B. No advance having taken place in the price of bread from 1777 to 1793, a period of 16 years, no increase was made in the pay of the journeymen.'

We consider the above as correct, with the exception of the first line: for we are not prepared to believe that the weekly wages were so high as 21s. 9d. in 1777, and that they continued stationary until 1794. We have known many examples of daily wages remaining stationary under circumstances of great increase in the expence of living:

Living : but the practice of doing work by the piece had become much more general in the interval, and, with the improved tools and increased dexterity of the workmen, had considerably ameliorated their income, so as to keep it nearly on a par with the augmentation in the price of provisions.

Art. 21. *Reasons for colonizing the Island of Newfoundland, in a Letter addressed to the Inhabitants.* By William Carson, M.D. 8vo. pp. 26. Phillips. 1813.

The limited extent of the settlement of Newfoundland, and the peculiar occupation of the inhabitants, tend to make its real situation little known to the British public at large. Many among us imagine that, like other colonies, it is in a state of regular cultivation, and enabled to produce corn and vegetables for the supply of its inhabitants : but the fact is that the cultivated land does not exceed the compass of a few square miles. In former days, the settlers were accustomed to pass the winter-months in England, and were disposed to consider their sojourn in Newfoundland as strictly temporary ; and, as long as the communication with the United States continued uninterrupted, the facility of receiving provisions formed an inducement for declining to take the trouble of clearing and cultivating their own soil. The practice of the inhabitants has accordingly been to purchase the articles of comfort, and frequently of support, at the warehouse of a merchant ; making their payments in fish, oil, and bills of exchange : but, since the interruption of the American traffic, the prices of provisions have exceeded all bounds, and surpass even the rates of the British metropolis. Dr. Carson enlarges on this serious hardship, as a strong argument for the establishment of a distinct civil government in Newfoundland. There ought, he says, to be not only a resident Governor to represent the King, but a House of Assembly to represent our Parliament ; and, as some cautious persons might be alarmed at the idea of taxes proving an accompaniment to institutions of this ominous character, the author takes pains (p. 21.) to maintain the very difficult position that we are quite safe in putting implicit confidence in the virtue and wisdom of a local government.

Dr. C. appears from his preamble to have incurred the displeasure of the leading men at St. John's, by the openness with which he called for a change in the mode of government. We have certainly no connection with these insular politicians : but we cannot help liking Dr. C. best when he waives discussions of that nature, and confines himself to statistical details. Without assenting to his demand of a premium on agricultural cultivation, we can have no doubt of the propriety of removing every obstacle to the enterprise and industry of the individual ; and we have no difficulty in believing his assertion (p. 19, 20.) that the habit, on the part of the lower orders, of living on salted and cold provisions, has a pernicious effect on the health, and forms a strong inducement to the use of ardent spirits. Neither do we entertain a doubt that the climate of the island, rigorous as it is in winter, would be equal to the production of good corn, or the pasture adequate to the nourishment of cattle of a large size. In point of latitude, Newfoundland lies between 46° and 52° ; a situation, no doubt, considerably colder than a correspondent position in Europe, but less

cold than a parallel latitude on the American continent. Dr. C. says that ploughing or other field labour has seldom been stopped by the frost before Christmas, and that the lands are again open to receive the plough in April. We agree with him in opposing those who would discourage cultivation, by dwelling on the advantages of giving a moveable character to a fishing establishment, and by alleging that colonization is incompatible with the interests of the mother-country. Hitherto, the governors of Newfoundland have been the naval commanders on the station; a description of officers better calculated to defend than to rule a settlement.

It is still more absurd to represent agriculture as injurious to the extension of the fisheries. In England, as in other maritime countries, the increase of agriculture and navigation go hand in hand. How can the navigator be assured of either variety or constancy in the supply of provisions, in a country in which the land is uncultivated? — The interruption of fishing during the winter affords another argument on the same side. Disengaged from his aquatic labours about the 20th of October, the fisherman, instead of passing the inclement season in idleness, and frequently in a course of drunkenness, might have work of a sufficiently profitable nature to induce him to give his time to the augmentation of a maintenance for a family. October and November, says Dr. C., are harvest-months in Newfoundland; and, in the spring, seed-time is past before the fishing season commences. Moreover, the work to be performed within doors, during the season of intense frost, would be greatly increased by the introduction of agricultural habits. The progress of such improvements, we are aware, would be very slow in a country which is not inviting in itself, and which is generally considered by emigrants from Europe as a mere stepping-stone to the continent of America. Our arguments, therefore, are to be viewed in no other light than as directed against the current prejudice that the cultivation of the land would be found to interfere with the extension of the fisheries.

Art. 22. *A Dissertation on the public Fisheries of Great Britain; explaining the Rise, Progress, and Art of the Dutch Fishery; and shewing by plain and unequivocal Demonstration that the Establishment of a national Fishery, on similar Principles, will extinguish the Poor's Rate; afford universal Employment; prevent the necessity of naval Impress; increase Trade; diminish Taxes; supply constant and perpetual Food; and augment the Wealth of the Nation annually Twenty Millions of Pounds; with the Method proposed for effecting such Establishment; by Henry Schultes, Author of an Essay on aquatic Rights, &c. 8vo. pp. 101. Underwood.*

It would be difficult to prize too highly the national advantages attendant on an extension of our fisheries: but, whatever may be our sense of the magnitude of the object, we can scarcely pay Mr. Schultes the compliment of having succeeded in his mode of discussing it. He divides his pamphlet into several heads, the first of which, 'An Account of the Migration of Herrings,' is copied, with little alteration, from the *Encyclopedia Britannica*. His second division, 'The Rise and Progress of the Dutch Fisheries,' comprizes little else than

translations from the printed regulations of the Dutch for the equipment of their vessels, the management of the fisheries, and particularly the curing of the herrings. With this, Mr. S. gives a statement (p. 14.) of the various occupations of the inhabitants of Holland, about the middle of the 17th century, the time when that country is commonly considered to have been in the zenith of its prosperity. Documents of this nature are in general instructive; and we are prevented from transcribing the one in question only by our suspicion of its deficiency in accuracy. It estimates the population of Holland at 2,400,000; a number greater by nearly half a million than the actual return of 1796. After all that has been said of the decline of Dutch prosperity and population, we are by no means disposed to give belief to so great a diminution; and we consider the difference in the present power and wealth of Holland, compared with those of former ages, as more relative than absolute. Like Spain, Holland has been outstripped in the career of political and commercial advancement by the neighbouring states, and more particularly by England.

The third division of Mr. Schultes's pamphlet relates to the measures successively adopted in this country for the establishment and extension of our fisheries. These, it is well known, have been in general unsuccessful; the large sums provided by parliament, particularly in the year 1750, having appeared to answer no other purpose than that of demonstrating the impracticability of forcing a branch of trade by artificial regulations. Mr. S. ascribes the failure (p. 74, 75.) to the advantage possessed by the Dutch in point of reputation in foreign markets, as well as to their actual superiority in curing the fish. He might have added that the measures of our government, however well meant, have been frequently injudicious; and that more attention ought to have been paid to Dr. Smith's recommendation of reducing the bounty on the busses or larger vessels, and of leaving the fishery to be carried on in boats. The former, says that instructive writer, may be the preferable vessels for the Dutch, who have to cross and recross a sea of considerable extent, but they are unnecessary to the fishermen of Scotland, who find employment, in a manner, at their doors. — The grant of a bounty to the busses has unavoidably the effect of imposing a discouragement on the boat-fisheries. Leave the trade to itself, and the certainty of a high market will operate to make it flourish without any aid or interference on the part of government. The bounty being withdrawn, the comparative result of different branches of fishing will point out the extent to which it is advisable to employ shipping in each; and the relative price at market will be in proportion to the expence incurred in procuring one kind of fish in deep water, and another kind in the locks or bays on our shores. The high price of butcher's meat, of corn, of poultry, in short of every article in the shape of provision, in the British market, gives an assurance of a continued premium on our fisheries, of a more natural and beneficial character than any thing in the shape of bounty. Let us always keep in mind that it would be impolitic to push our fisheries beyond the encouragements afforded by such a premium. A forced extension of a branch of trade is necessarily injurious to the augmentation of national capital; and even in a branch connected with

the increase of the number of our seamen, the true way is to leave things to their natural course. On the latter plan, the public will always be capable of contributing most effectually in the shape of taxes, and government, when possessed of pecuniary means, will be able to direct their application to the maintenance of an additional body of seamen in the public service.

With this view of the subject, we cannot give our assent to the plan of Mr. Schultes, the basis of which rests (p. 78.) on the interference of government. Our approbation, therefore, must be confined to those parts of his pamphlet which shew (p. 92, 93.) the tendency in our markets to a farther rise in the case both of bread and meat; and the advantage, or rather the necessity, of meeting this pernicious progress by an extended supply from our fisheries. Mr. S. argues likewise that additional means of livelihood would be afforded to families by spinning, and net-making, for the supply of an increased number of fishing vessels.

Art. 23. *Letters of Britannicus to the Editor of the Morning Post*, on Mr. Grattan's Bill for the Relief of the Roman Catholics of Great Britain and Ireland; or, as it should have been entitled, for *The Advancement of Popery*. To which is added an Appendix, containing the Petition of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. 8vo. pp. 84. 2s. 6d. Stockdale, junior. 1813.

The zeal of the opponents of the Catholics has here led to the publication, in a separate form, of letters which had already obtained too extensive a circulation for any merit that they possess, and which are replete with the exaggerations and affected fears of those who write and speak against the plan of emancipation. According to those persons, political disabilities are of the very essence of our Protestant constitution; a constitution that they pretend, would be undone were Mr. Grattan's bill of the last session to pass into a law. Those who are seriously disposed to entertain such apprehensions will do well to consider the very limited influence of the Catholics in the return of members to parliament. Supposing, for a moment, that all Catholics were disaffected, what mighty mischief could be achieved by ten or twelve peers and 50 or 60 members of the House of Commons? We might have said, with more propriety, 20 or 30 of the latter, since the Catholics have neither the property nor the influence which is necessary to succeed in parliamentary elections. The sure way of disuniting a sect is to let it alone; it will then cease to have those distinctive features of hardship and inferiority, which link men together in opposition to those who controul them: a fact which has been exemplified in the history of almost every religious sect in existence. Had the Catholics, however, been ill disposed, they would long ago have taken the required oaths, and have received promotion in the public service, with the view of perpetrating that mischief which some persons are so fond of attributing to them; but the fact is that their interests are wholly Anti-Galican, and wholly British; which, in truth, might be said of the head of their church himself, whose only hope of independence is in the reduction of the power of Bonaparte.

POETRY.

Art. 24. *Leaves of Laurel; or New Probationary Odes for the Vacant Laureatship*: collected and edited by Q. Q. and W. W. 8vo. 3s. Becket and Porter.

We certainly have not been applicants for the vacant *hundred pounds per annum and butt of sack*: nor do we know whether the royal office of Poet-Laureat has really *gone a-begging* among our chief poets, or whether it has been difficult for the higher powers to decide among a crowd of claimants: but, during the *interregnum* which has occurred since the death of Mr. Pye, an opportunity has been afforded, which the bard before us has seized, of imagining a mock trial of skill in contention for the place, and a Sancho Pança sort of judge. Grimaldi is the arbiter chosen by Q. Q. and W. W., at his dwelling at Sadler's Wells, and the contending poets are Messrs. Campbell, Rogers, Walter Scott, Lord Byron, (Anacreon) Moore, Bowles, Crabbe, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, Spencer, and (Monk) Lewis. The imitations of the style of these writers are perhaps as exact as those of the *Rejected Addresses*, but in some instances are such close *parodies* that they can scarcely claim original merit. For instance, we quoted from the *Irish Melodies*, Rev. for June last, p. 118., Mr. Moore's beautiful wild ballad on *Love's Young Dream*, and our readers may compare with it the *Middlesex Melodies* here assigned to Mr. M.:

" Oh! the days are gone, when Dryden bright

The laurel wore - - -

When the cry for song from morn till night;

Was " more," still " more !"

New bays may bloom,

And bards may come

Of milder, calmer vein —

But there's nothing half so strong in life,

As old John's strain!

Oh! there's nothing half so strong in life,

As old John's strain!

Though the harp to fresher fame may soar,

Now stale P—e's gone;

Though it win the wise, so deaf before,

To hear its tone,

'Twill never gain

So high a strain

In all its noon of praise

As the lays we drink with ravish'd ear,

Those soul-felt lays,

Which, at every pause, call forth a tear

For poor old Bayes!

Oh! that royal feast is ne'er forgot

For Persia won;

Still it nobly paints the spirit hot

Of Philip's son —

How could he write

In one short night;

What years may hope in vain !
 Oh ! there's nothing half so strong in life,
 As old John's strain !
 Oh ! there's nothing, &c. &c."

Mr. Walter Scott thus sings :

" The summer day throws dying fire
 From Stanmore's height, from Harrow's spire * ;
 Fair Headstone's † lowlands swiftly fade
 In gathering mist and closing shade ;
 And, Cardinal ! the pensive hour
 Sheds sadness on thy ruin'd bower.
 Dim flits the bat o'er Harrow-weald,
 And owl hoots hoarse in Pinner-field.
 'Tis darker yet, and yet more still,
 By watery vale, and wooded hill ;
 Like baby hush'd on mother's breast,
 Meek nature droops, and sinks to rest.

" The moon, half-hid, and half-display'd,
 Shows like warm blush of Highland maid ;
 But, redder as it gleams through Heaven,
 Blushes like sinner unforgiven.
 Why sleeps it thus on new-rai'd grave ;
 Minstrel ! it sleeps, thy pride to save.
 Go, ponder o'er that solemn sight,
 Go, ponder by the red moon-light,
 And read such awful warning right !
 That grave is emblem of distress
 To dreaming child of happiness ;
 That grave thy wandering step will guide,
 In winter, or in summer tide ;
 That grave will bid thee put aside
 (Aside, proud bard, for ever put !)
 Both cool and Malmsey butt.
 Oh ! follow such monition high,
 And, Minstrel, say not — " I am P—e!"

Grimaldi is suddenly called away to his duties at Sadler's Wells Theatre, and the strife is left undecided : but the contending poets are said

————— ' all but one to swear
 For laureat honours they no longer care,'

and determine that Grimaldi is not only the best judge of the cause, but himself the fittest person for the office in dispute.

The humour and the poetic talents of this anonymous poet are both too good for the short-lived and subordinate service to which he has

* * The topographical imagination of the poet, here reciting, has actually transported him from the New River Head to a summer-house in the neighbourhood of Stanmore ; and he is now depicting the rural objects around him with the utmost accuracy."

† Cardinal Wolsey had a house at Headstone."

here

here devoted them : but *a little trifling* is sometimes very desirable and very salutary, to both body and mind. We wish that *war* and *taxes* allowed us more of it : but they are sad enemies to the risible faculties, as well as to the milder virtues.

Art. 25. *Poems*, by Samuel Blake Frome. 12mo. Boards. Huntley. 1813.

Had Mr. Frome's poetry been sent into the world without the introductory prose 'Letter to the Subscribers,' it would certainly have appeared to more advantage. A species of wildness and flightiness appears in that letter, which seems almost to indicate that "Hamlet from himself is ta'en away." Some of the poems are pretty, though occasionally spotted by inaccuracies, and display evident symptoms of genius. Let the following little pieces be regarded as no unfair samples :

' WOMAN'S EYE.

- ' The lips of Woman oft deceive,
And dimpled smiles her feeling screen,
While flatt'ry makes fond man believe,
Truth drew the picture, sketch'd the scene ;
So Heav'n, in mercy, fix'd her soul,
Not in her kiss, nor in her sigh ;
That nature still should art control,
Plac'd Woman's passions in her Eye.
- ' Blest boy, when clasp'd within her arms,
While melting kisses mix with thine,
While blushes heighten all her charms,
Wouldst thou her fondest wish divine,
As morn dispels the shades of night,
Prest to her breast, delirious lie,
Voluptuous task, by morning's light,
To trace the soul in Woman's Eye.
- ' But hapless man, should dawning peace,
Disturb'd by care, flee swift away,
Or fell despair each grief increase,
And darken every mental ray ;
Then to some lonely spot resign'd,
Should lovely Woman hear thy sigh,
With smiles endearing soothe thy mind,
Oh, trace the motive in her Eye.
- ' Thus endless blisses, love supreme,
And raptures, wild, the mind entrance,
While, ah ! when rays of pity gleam,
What thrilling joys attend their glance ;
So, whether sunk, by sorrow, down,
Or rais'd on wings of hope we fly,
Dear Woman's Soul, our bliss to crown,
Was plac'd within her lovely Eye.'

‘ THE WRECK.

- When low’ring vapours shroud the sky,
And Death, terrific, rides the surge;
When seamen ev’ry effort try,
While bellowing billows sound their dirge;
Fond hope inspires the hardy tar
To snatch from mould’ring time a name,
Daring the elemental war,
He dying trusts his child to Fame.
- The gulph tremendous meets his view,
Toss’d on the terror-threat’ning wave;
His boldness cheers the delug’d crew,
Tho’ every billow seems their grave:
As the blast whistles thro’ the sail,
While lightnings flash their vivid flame,
Should painful thoughts of home prevail,
He, dying, trusts his child to Fame.
- Now thick’ning waves break o’er the deck,
With horrid overwhelming roar—
The drunken vessel’s splitting wreck,
Disjointed, sinks to rise no more.
Can Britons view with careless eyes,
Or with indiff’rence meet his claim?
No! while they soothe the widow’s sighs,
They raise her orphan child to Fame.’

Mr. Frome promised his subscribers a good engraving: but a poor wood-cut is all the embellishment which he has given to his volume.

Art. 26. Metrical Remarks on Modern Castles and Cottages, and Architecture in general. 8vo. pp. 47. Nunn. 1813.

It is not easy to define Taste: but all persons allow that, unless this undefinable beauty be associated with judgment, she is very apt to “lead us a fine dance.” We know of no department of the arts in which the vagaries of what is called Taste are more conspicuous than in architecture; the professors of which, either from a blind imitation of the elegant and highly-gifted Greeks, or from a passion for what is termed Gothic, are very apt to plunge us into the grossest absurdities. The maxim of Pope, that

— “ Splendor borrows all her rays from sense,”

ought always to be kept in view by the architect; since, otherwise, in producing effect, as it is styled, he produces a heap of incongruities, stamping a character on the modern edifice which neither the principles of the age nor the uses to which it is applied will justify. ‘We have taken,’ as the present writer observes, ‘the forms of Grecian and Roman Temples; and not content with dilating their massive simplicity into the complex accommodations of our houses, we have preposterously transferred the symbols of sacrifice and religion to the ornamental parts of our buildings.’ Another objection is

made to the close imitation of classical architecture, on the ground of its throwing great restraints on domestic convenience. Considering the *window* of the classical architecture as the plague of artists, this metrical critic recommends them to study the best remaining specimens of our gorgeous mansions; the *bowed* window of which, 'by its sweeping form, its height, breadth, and lightened solidity of frame, displays the utmost possible capacity of illumination.' The modern cottage is a subject of just ridicule:

' In other style the straw-thatch'd Cot is found,
With curtains chintz, and windows to the ground:
With coach-house double, and with stables two,
Pine-house and green-house.'

The critic begins with describing the birth of Taste, and the intrusion of Caprice into his domain; he represents also the effects of Novelty, Ignorance, and Fancy: but we shall not attend to this poetical introduction, nor copy many of the writer's couplets, since he is conscious of the defects of his work as a poem, and speaks of himself as

' Struggling for rhyme in verses cramp and hard.'

Some of his lines are indeed very hobbling: but he has studied the subject on which he writes, and therefore his *Metrical Remarks* are not to be rejected because they are not polished poetry. We shall copy one short passage, in which he describes the unsuitableness of classical architecture to our domestic purposes:

' Strange! that for Science famed and strength of mind,
No fit resource within ourselves we find:
For to cloud-curtain'd sun and darken'd sky
Italia's airy forms but ill apply:
In marbled hall we shake and freeze in state,
And cold and cough upon our greatness wait.
Pressed into modern use, the forms severe
Of ancient temples out of place appear:
In mangled shapes they struggle with their fate,
Curtailed, yet crouded—heavy, yet not great.'

Our public buildings pass under review, and in a long note the architecture of the Bank provokes some severe strictures.

Art. 27. *Poems*, by J. B. Drayton. Crown 8vo. pp. 203.
Boards. Gale and Co. 1813.

What evil genius could urge a writer to give publicity to his effusions, when he is 'fully conscious that he is thereby contributing but little to the stock, either of literary entertainment, or of moral improvement?' Has he a chance, in this age of fastidiousness, of having his vanity gratified? Does he not rather go to market with a certainty of bringing back a heavy load of disappointment? Mr. Drayton must know little of critics, if he thinks of obtaining the smallest sugar-plumb of applause from them. More than half of this little volume is composed of the Scripture-stories of Eli and Samuel,

Samuel, Ahab and Naboth, and Abraham and Isaac, *done* into tame blank verse. E. g. :

‘ By Myself I’ve sworn,
Because thou hast obey’d my great command,
Nor e’en in thought withheld from me thy son,
Thine only son ; in blessing I will bless thee.’

No apprenticeship to the Muses is necessary for learning the art of poetry, if this be poetry. In one place, we are told that the ‘ *Filial Godhead* spoke ;’ and an Invitation to Spring thus begins,

‘ Fairest of th’ alternate Four.’

As a specimen of Mr. Drayton’s *rhimes*, we give the following couplets :

‘ He knows this life’s severest ills
His God in tender mercy deals.’

‘ In the rich gift of Christ, he sees
His claim to all the *Promises*.’

Such verse is of no great promise, and we do not feel that it has any claim to our *imprimatur*.

TRAVELS.

Art. 28. *An original Journal from London to St. Petersburg, by way of Sweden ;* and proceeding from thence to Moscow, Riga, Mittau, and Berlin : with a Description of the Post Towns, and every Thing interesting, in the Russian and Prussian Capitals ; to which are added, the Names, Distances, and Price, of each Post ; and a Vocabulary of the most useful Terms, in English and Russian. By George Green, Esq., many Years resident in Russia. 12mo. pp. 224. 7s. 6d. Boards. Boosey. 1813.

Mr. Green describes himself as a traveller in Russia in the years 1805, 6, and 7, and begins his book by giving an account, at considerable length, of St. Petersburg. After having made his report of that city, and of its harbour Cronstadt, he adverts to the more general topic of the national manners and customs. From his account of the method in which the lower classes of Russians usually take their diet and lodging, we shall find little cause of surprise at their continuing in health under circumstances which prove fatal to the constitutions of other Europeans :

‘ The manner of living and laying (*lying*) among the lower class of Russians is harder and coarser than that of almost any other Europeans. Their ordinary fare is coarse black rye-bread, and a kind of soup thickened with oatmeal and a mixture of sour-cROUT ; of cucumber pickled in salt without vinegar, fish, bullock’s liver roasted, mushrooms, hard boiled pease, hard boiled eggs, sour milk, and, instead of spices, they season high with garlic, salt, and pepper. In their Lent, they fare still worse, eating either salted herrings or dried fish, raw pease, raw beans, raw carrots and turnips ; and therefore they are in some measure excusable for being so much addicted to drinking-watki, which is the Russian brandy. Their common drink is quaz, brown beer ; and mead, a liquor made with honey, pepper, and water ;

water ; in summer, they have a potation which is not unpleasant, it is made with honey, water, and the juice of cran-berries.*

Agriculture, as we may naturally imagine, is here in a very backward state. Nothing is known of artificial grasses, or of any green spring-food, except for culinary purposes. The common Russian plough is so light as to go no farther than an inch and a half into the ground ; while the harrow consists of nothing better than ' wooden pegs driven into wooden bars, which are joined together with thongs of willow.' In such a country, the patience of a foreign traveller must frequently be put to a severe test :

' The best way of travelling in Russia is in a strong commodious Holstein waggon, having it made on purpose by some German coach-maker at St. Petersburg, as their work is sounder than the Russian ; the price is about 200 roubles. The reason this is preferable to any other carriage is that, if any accident happens to it on the road, there is not a Russian peasant who cannot repair it ; and that they cannot do with a coach or berlin. Besides, as it holds a bed and luggage, you may sleep in it on the road : you will find few of the Russian post-houses which can even furnish you with a room.'

The stages of two great post-roads are described by Mr. Green—viz. the road from Petersburg to Berlin, by way of Mittau and Königsberg ; and the road from Petersburg to Gottenburg, by way of Finland, the Baltic islands, and Stockholm. The author, whatever may be his profession, has no pretensions to accuracy in composition ; his style discovering a number of departures from the rules of elegance, and even of grammar. However, his *memoranda* may be useful, in point of topographical particulars, to those whose object is a mere acquaintance with the country, and who are prepared to make allowance for the exaggerations which are unfortunately too common in title-pages.

Art. 29. *Tour through Ireland*, particularly the Interior and least known Parts ; containing an accurate View of the Parties, Politics, and Improvements, in the different Provinces ; with Reflections and Observations on the Union of Britain and Ireland ; the Practicability and Advantages of a Telegraphic Communication between the two Countries, and other Matters of Importance. By the Rev. James Hall, A.M. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 664. 1l. 1s. Boards. More. 1813.

We had occasion, about five years ago *, to notice a former publication by Mr. Hall, intitled " Travels in Scotland ;" and we then remarked that the promise of the title-page was not fulfilled in the body of the work, and that the author had no scruple in making a report of places which it was evident he had never seen. We animadverted also on the loose and careless style of many passages, and expressed our more than doubts of the accuracy of many strange anecdotes with which the author's pages were liberally interspersed. A charge of a still more serious nature related to the introduction of certain passages altogether unsuited to the delicacy that ought to

* M. R. Vol. lvi. p. 19.

govern the writings of a clergyman.—All these objections apply, we are sorry to say, to the volumes now before us. Mr. Hall has described, with sufficient clearness, a variety of circumstances relative to Ireland, which he might have gleaned from the labours of others without going beyond the precincts of an extensive library; and he has also permitted the introduction of a number of unconnected, and not unfrequently coarse and indelicate illustrations. The work has evidently been put together with a view of swelling it to the book-seller's size, by the insertion of whatever the writer thought could give momentary amusement to a reader, or tend to display his own erudition. The latter is of a most miscellaneous character: but we are at a loss what to say of its accuracy, on finding (Vol. ii. p. 240.) that Mr. H. is a serious believer in the tradition that, in the dark ages, learning flourished in Ireland; and that this once happy land sent forth in the days of Charlemagne a host of literati to enlighten England and the continent:—As to statistical observations, it would be easy to point out a repetition of errors similar to those which marked Mr. Hall's Scottish tour; the population of Drogheda, for example, we believe to be double the number which he has assigned to it. We take leave, therefore, of this reverend gentleman with no mean opinion of his talents for book-making, but with a wish to receive in future more sober and correct performances from his hands.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *Anecdotes, hitherto unpublished, of the Private Life of Peter the Great.* 12mo. pp. 170. 5s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1813.

Though the title-page asserts that these anecdotes have been 'hitherto unpublished,' an admission is made in the advertisement that they are translated from a book printed at Paris in 1811. This seems something like a design to entrap, on the one hand, incautious readers by a trick in the title, and on the other to deprecate the critic's exposure by an appearance of candour. It would have been much better had the publisher forborne the claim to originality, and fixed his attention on the correction of the errors which have found their way into the volume. On turning over a few pages, we see the following passage: 'Peter had already reigned many years when he was seized at the age of fifteen with a disorder,' &c. The next anecdote describes him with equal accuracy as engaged in the siege of Narva in Sweden. Occasionally, however, we meet with an useful explanatory remark, such as that (p. 79.) of the *Stovo i delo*; a law by which any person accusing another, and persisting in the accusation after having undergone the knout three times, was deemed a conclusive witness, and was enabled to cause the death of the accused. Peter had opportunities of observing the bad consequences of this barbarous custom, but did not think it was expedient to abolish it.—He was active in directing the translation of foreign books into the Russian language, and gave a preference to those which treated of mechanics, navigation, ship-building, fortification, and the art of war.

'The Czar rose at four in the morning, and was ready to receive the ministers, who came to lay before him their statements relative to the

the public affairs. These he examined and considered himself; gave orders, made notes, answered, or qualified any objections that were offered, and made such alterations and corrections as his clear and sound judgment prompted him to suggest. He then ate a slight breakfast, and, dressing himself, went to the Admiralty, and from thence to the Senate. He dined regularly at eleven o'clock, and his favourite dishes were soup with sour or salted cabbage, gruel, cold pig soaked in sour cream, cold roast meat, seasoned with cucumbers, roast lamb, salt meat, ham, and old cheese. After dinner he put on a dressing gown, and took a nap for two hours, after which, his ministers presented, for his examination, the report of the affairs which had been dispatched in the morning. Except in those revels and fits of intoxication, when he appeared entirely to forget himself, his usual drink was kislestchi, quas, and occasionally a little brandy: when he gave up these liquors for wine, he preferred medoc, and after that hermitage. —

‘Happening once to meet one of those Dutch captains, who, he knew, sometimes went to Archangel, he stopped him and said, “Which do you like best, Archangel or Petersburg?” The mariner roughly replied “Archangel, my Lord.” “And why?” “Because we can get good omelets there, and they give us none here.” Peter carried his indulgence and goodness so far as to invite him, with all the other Dutch captains who were in Petersburg, to come and eat some the next day, adding that he hoped they would be as good as those of Archangel. He ordered Velten to dress this dish in every shape and fashion, and in the garden of the summer palace, gave the seamen a grand feast, and at the same time honoured them with his presence.

‘Narrow-minded sovereigns are fearful of mixing with, and descending amongst their inferiors, for by such a proceeding they discover their real insignificance. But as true greatness is conscious of its dignity, and feels that it shall lose nothing by the closest inspection, this monarch gave up his whole character to the observation of mankind, and was not himself exempt from those naïvetés which draw down the censure of fools, and are, oftener than is supposed, the characteristics of real genius.’

Peter was very tall in stature, and of a robust constitution. He died, however, in his fifty-third year, having brought on painful and dangerous complaints by a too frequent use of strong liquors.

Art. 31. *The Timber Dealer's Guide*, in measuring and valuing Trees of any Dimensions or Qualities. By A. Crocker, Land and Timber Surveyor, of Frome. Long 12mo. pp. 118. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

The object of this publication is to afford an useful manual for the timber-merchant. A few plain diagrams, calculated to facilitate measurement, are given, with some very useful hints concerning the frauds practised in this line of business; and the body of the volume consists of a series of tables for measuring round timber, followed by another series for its valuation.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 32. *The Millennium, or Joy and Salvation to the World for a thousand Years.* Preached at Southampton, September 23. 1812, before the Hampshire Association; with Notes. By Thomas Loader. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

A thousand conjectures have been started on the subject of the Millennium, and Mr. Loader is resolved on making them a thousand and one. He has indeed imagined a splendid state of knowledge, virtue, and happiness: but nothing appears to warrant us to expect that, in this world, a thousand years of felicity, such as he describes, will ever occur. Yet he seems to think that, about the year of the Lord 2000, the Millennium will arrive; and he hopes that he shall not be deemed a visionary if he regards the present generation as 'on the eve, if not on the dawn, of the Millennium.' We can only say that the preacher must have different powers of vision from our own, if he perceives any thing in the present state of the world to warrant his opinion.

Art. 33. *A Harvest Sermon.* By a Country Curate. 4to. 2s. Rivingtons.

We find nothing in this discourse which accords with its title. The author indeed urges the rich to avoid the fate of *Dives* in the text, (Luke, xvi. 31.) by liberal beneficence and charity to the poor: but, as the representation of *Dives* and *Lazarus* is parabolical, the preacher is not (we think) justified in his conclusion 'that the souls of our departed friends, whether removed to a state of felicity or of suffering, still retain an anxious interest in our present and future welfare.' Why did he not maintain that the inhabitants of Hell have a fine prospect of Heaven?

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our friend's second note is received; and if he be very desirous of it, we will change our former observation for the old saying, *better late than never.*

R. B. is very angry with us for not being disciples of Swedenborg, and abuses us because we confess our inability to comprehend the doctrines of that writer. If he could exercise Christian charity, he should rather pity us, who really are not illumined. At any rate, we think that he has not had cause for reviling us.

The packet from S. P., *Hackney*, has come to our hands, but we know nothing of the publication to which it refers.

The request of J. E., *Islington*, is such as we can very rarely find time to grant: in the present instance, we are prevented by the *loss of memoranda*, which alone could enable us to accede to it.

. The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxi. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains a variety of articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the Volume.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1813.

ART. I. *Travels in Sweden*, during the Autumn of 1812. By Thomas Thomson, M.D. F.R.S. L. and E., F.L.S., &c. Illustrated by Maps and other Plates. 4to. pp. 470. 2l. 2s. Boards. Baldwin. 1813.

WHEN gentlemen of liberal education, and of scientific acquirements, communicate to the public the results of their personal observations on foreign countries, we are disposed not only to rely on their statements with every reasonable degree of confidence, but to resort to their pages for solid, accurate, and varied information. Even in those regions which have been repeatedly traversed and described, the scholar and the philosopher may find ample gleanings with which he may instruct or amuse the more refined classes of readers, and may correct the hasty or careless reports of others; and he may intersperse his narrative with such reflections and remarks as may contribute to explain apparent paradoxes, or give connection and importance to insulated facts.

It is well known that the author of the volume now on our table has attained to a distinguished rank in the province of chemistry, and he has evidently cultivated with assiduity the kindred departments of mineralogy and geology. We have been moreover informed that, to the general qualifications of academical learning, he unites an intimate acquaintance with the principles of the physical and mathematical sciences; while his various publications, and the diligence and perspicacity with which he has prosecuted this northern tour, bespeak that activity and ardour of pursuit which ought ever to be associated with the possession of intellect and talents. Although the country, therefore, through which he directed his steps, has exercised the pens of professed travellers, his sketch of those portions of it which fell under his observation may still be perused both with interest and with profit: while, independently of the original and valuable notices of the mineralogy of his route, his statistical and political comments are eminently calculated to arrest the attention of all who feel for the vital concerns of Europe, at this momentous crisis of her destinies.

The avowed objects of Dr. Thomson's visit to Sweden were not only to contemplate the manners and dispositions of its inhabitants, and the progress which they have made in civilization and the arts, but more specifically to examine its mineralogy,—as far, at least, as an excursion of six or seven weeks could allow such an examination,—and also to ascertain the state of chemistry in the native country of Bergman and Scheele. Should the rapidity of his movements appear to be incompatible with the fulfilment of such views, we might remark that some travellers are capable of observing more in a few weeks, than others in as many months or years. Dr. Thomson, however, rests his apology on different pretensions :

‘ I found, upon comparing my journal with all the English books of travels through Sweden which I could find, that I had it in my power to lay much new information before the English reader. The mineralogy of Sweden had not been touched upon, except by one or two German travellers ; and as I saw a good deal more of the country than either Haussman or Von Buch, many of my mineralogical observations will, I flatter myself, be found new. To the English reader they ought to be interesting, because they exhibit a country exceedingly different from his own, and almost entirely composed of a rock which is rather of rare occurrence in Great Britain ; being, as far as my observations have gone, confined to a few districts in the Highlands of Scotland. The prodigious extent of gneiss rocks which cover almost the whole of Scandinavia, when once fully known in this country, may have a tendency to prevent our geologists from explaining the structure of the earth from what appears in Great Britain alone ; or from denouncing a rock as rare and insignificant, because it may happen to occur but sparingly in Great Britain.’—

‘ As through the uncommon politeness of numerous scientific friends, with whom I contracted an acquaintance in Sweden, I possessed advantages which do not fall to the lot of every traveller, and as, from the uncommon goodness of the weather, I could make my mineralogical observations without a single interruption, I was enabled to collect together a considerable number of valuable facts. As the communication of these may be attended with some utility, I have determined to lay them before the public. I shall touch as little as possible upon those topics which have been discussed by preceding travellers in Sweden, but confine myself chiefly to those facts which came under my own observation, or which I received from men of science and intelligence, upon whom I could rely.’

An abstract of the author's journal, intermingled with a liberal portion of quotation, would best convey an adequate idea of the nature and contents of the present volume : but the unusual copiousness of the materials will compel us to notice in a very cursory manner, or even wholly to overlook, various circumstances and incidents which are well detailed, and which
would

would form the subjects of prominent passages in productions of a more meagre and trivial complexion.

On the 18th of August, 1812, Dr. Thomson, accompanied by his friend Mr. Ritchie, (one of the Masters of the High School of Edinburgh,) set sail from Leith, in a smack; which the Doctor, agreeably perhaps to the vernacular idiom of his country, more than once dignifies with the appellation of *ship*. This vessel, being in ballast, rolled and pitched in such a manner that the journalist, though no stranger to the angry billows, was affected with nausea. 'Few sensations (he says) are more disagreeable than sea-sickness while it lasts. I have seen a variety of things tried in order to stop it. The most successful is brisk bottled porter: a few glasses of this taken, after the sickness has continued a day or so, I have never seen fail to produce almost immediate relief. This may perhaps depend in some measure upon the briskness of the porter; but certainly not altogether, for ale, although equally brisk, has not the same effect.' In a run of three days and a few hours, the travellers were wafted in sight of Gottenburg, which is little short of six hundred miles from Leith in a straight line. During this passage, the water varied in depth from 80 to 100 fathoms; and, though the season had proved unusually cold, the superficial temperature of the sea was on one day 58°, and on another as high as 62°. The varying colours of the water, it is well observed, afford indications of its depth: but they also seem, in some measure, to depend on the state of the atmosphere.

The small bay, in which Gottenburg is situated, is studded with naked and sterile rocks, in the form of long ridges; precipitous on one side, more sloping on the other, and varying in height from a few feet to nearly three hundred above the level of the sea. Though destitute of vegetation, they afford occasional shelter to the wooden hut of the fisherman or the pilot. About three hundred vessels lay in the harbour of Gottenburg, and a fleet of the same number had left it a few days before. Inns in this place are altogether unknown; and, with some difficulty, the travellers were accommodated with lodging in one of the *two* hotels: yet the population of this thriving and trading town was estimated, in 1811, at 24,858. In one of the suburbs, indeed, are two houses, kept by English people, for the accommodation of the captains of our merchantmen: but they are represented as little better than alehouses, and always intolerably crowded. As in the last ten years Gottenburg has been twice consumed by fire*, the building of wooden houses

* The newspapers are now (September) stating that it is again suffering (at least partially) under this destructive element.

within its precincts has been prohibited by law. Like most of the Swedish towns, its streets are regularly distributed. It is the seat of a bishop, and contains two Swedish churches and one German. Whether that which was appropriated to the service of the Church of England still exists, Dr. Thomson is uncertain: but, if he had been as *curious* in churches as in gneiss rocks, he might have ascertained the matter of fact for the trouble of asking any one of the polite inhabitants to whom he was introduced. — Though regularly fortified with a ditch and wall, the city is not in a state to make any vigorous resistance:

‘ The principal merchants in Gottenburg are Scotchmen. In consequence of letters of introduction which we carried to several of them, we experienced from that liberal and respectable body a profusion of kindness and politeness which it was impossible to surpass, and which it would be *very difficult* to equal. The want of inns, and our ignorance of the Swedish language, would have made it *very difficult* for us to have procured dinner while we stayed at Gottenburg, but this difficulty was obviated by the merchants, with one or other of whom we dined every day during our stay in that city. The entertainments which they gave were in the Swedish style, and possessed a degree of splendour at which I was not a little surprised. As the mode of dining in Sweden is very different from the mode followed in Great Britain, I shall give a general description of a dinner, that my readers may form some notion to themselves of the customs of that country.

‘ The houses in Sweden are fitted up with great magnificence. The public rooms are usually on the first floor, and vary from three to seven or more according to the size of the house and the wealth of its master. These rooms always open into each other, and constitute a very elegant suite of apartments. The furniture though very handsome is not similar to ours. You seldom see mahogany chairs; they are usually of birch or of some other wood painted. As the tablecloth is never removed they have no occasion for our fine mahogany tables, and as the dishes are brought in one by one, and the dessert and wine put upon the table before the company sit down, they have but little occasion for a side-board. Accordingly, except in the house of Mr. Lorent, who had a very splendid side-board made in London, I do not recollect to have seen one in Sweden, even in the houses of men of the first rank. The rooms are not provided with bells. This I am told is owing to the extreme cheapness of servants in Sweden, which enabled every person to keep such a number as rendered bells unnecessary. This reason, which I do not consider as a very good one, exists not at present, for since the loss of Finland the wages of servants have considerably increased. Bells, therefore, might now be introduced with the greatest propriety; and to a foreigner, from Britain at least, they would constitute a great convenience. I have sometimes been obliged to go three times to the kitchen during the course of my breakfast, to ask for things that had been neglected or forgotten by the servants.

‘ The

‘ The Swedes are fond of great parties. I have more than once sat down to table with nearly 50 people in a private house. The hour of dinner is two o’clock. After the company are assembled they are shewn into a room adjoining the dining-room. In the middle of this room there is a round table covered with a table-cloth, upon which are placed bread, cheese, butter, and corn-brandy. Every person eats a morsel of bread and cheese and butter, and drinks a dram of brandy, by way of exciting the appetite for dinner. There are usually two kinds of bread; namely, wheat-bread baked into a kind of small rolls, for I never saw any loaves in Sweden; and rye, which is usually baked in thin cakes, and is known in Sweden by the name of *nicks-bread*. It is very palatable but requires good teeth to chew it.

‘ After this whet, the company are shown into the dining-room, and take their seats round the table. The first dish brought in is *sal-magundy*, salt fish, a mixture of salmon and rice, sausages, or some such strong seasoned article, to give an additional whet to the appetite. It is handed round the table, and every person helps himself in succession to as much of it as he chooses. The next dish is commonly roasted or stewed mutton, with bacon ham. These articles are carved by some individual at table, most commonly the master of the house, and the carved pieces being heaped upon a plate are carried round the company like the first dish. The Swedes like the French eat of every thing that is presented at table. The third dish is usually soup, then fowls, then fish, (generally salmon, pike, or streamlings,) then pudding, then the dessert, which consists of a great profusion of sweet-meats, in the preparation of which the inhabitants of Gottenburg excel. Each of these dishes is handed about in succession. The vegetables, consisting of potatoes, carrots, turnips, cauliflowers, greens, &c. are handed about in the same way. During the whole time of dinner a great deal of wine is drunk by the company. The wines are claret, port, sherry, and madeira. What they call claret at Gottenburg does not seem to be Bourdeaux wine. It is a French wine with a taste intermediate between claret and port. At Stockholm I drank occasionally true claret; but scarcely in any other part of Sweden. As all the wine used in Sweden is imported from Great Britain, our wine-merchants can probably explain this circumstance though I cannot.

‘ The Swedes employ the same articles for seasoning their food as we do, salt, pepper, mustard, vinegar, &c. I was sturck with one peculiarity which I had never seen before: they always mix together mustard and sugar: I had the curiosity to try this mixture, and found it not bad. The dinner usually lasts about two hours. On a signal given the company all rise together, bow with much solemnity towards the table, or rather towards each other, and then adjourn into the drawing-room. Here a cup of coffee is served up immediately to every individual. It is but doing the Swedes justice to say that their coffee is excellent, greatly preferable to what is usually drunk in England. This is the more remarkable because the Swedes import all their coffee from Britain: its quality, therefore, is not different from that of our own, and its superiority owing solely to their understanding better how to make it. You can get coffee in the meanest

peasant's house, and it is always excellent. It is usually about five o'clock when coffee is over. The company separate at this time, either going home to their own houses, or sauntering about in the fields if the weather be good.

They collect again in the drawing-room about half past six to drink tea. Swedish tea is just as bad as their coffee is good. If an epicure could transport himself in a moment from one place to another, he would always drink his coffee in Sweden, and his tea in England. The Swedish tea is so weak, that happening one evening to sit by the lady who was pouring it out, it struck me that she had accidentally forgot to put in any tea, and was pouring out nothing but hot water: I took the liberty to notice this mistake, in order as I thought to prevent the lady, when the tea should be handed round, from being put out of countenance by the detection of the oversight. My blunder occasioned much mirth, and the company no doubt set me down as a person very little acquainted with tea. It is not the quality of the tea that is bad, but the quantity employed is so small that you do not perceive the taste of it in the water. So that in fact you are drinking in reality hot water, sugar, and cream. The Swedish cream, to do them justice, is excellent. Though I have met with some Englishmen accustomed to the London cream complain of it as too thick,

'After tea the company usually sit down to cards: supper is served up about nine, and the party separate for the evening between eleven and twelve. In some houses, the interval between tea and supper was filled up by music. The Swedish instrument is a kind of harpsichord, not equal in its tones to our pianoforte. The music played is always Italian, and some of the ladies usually accompany the instrument with their voice. I could not find out that the Swedes had any peculiar music of their own; at least I could not succeed in Stockholm in procuring any specimens of it. All the music exposed for sale was Italian.'

The want of *money*, by which the author obviously means *specie*, is as complete as that of national music; and, when John Bull bewails the disappearance of gold, let him think of the harder lot of the Swede, whose silver and copper coin has also been converted into ghostly paper.

Mr. Lorent, an eminent Gottenburg merchant, who procured for the author some valuable introductions, and who possesses many estimable qualities, has established an extensive sugar-refinery, and is engaged in erecting a porter-brewery. Should he succeed in the latter attempt, he will still increase both his opulence and his popularity; for the Swedes are remarkably fond of London porter, though, on account of the duty, it costs them at the rate of half-a-crown a bottle.

In former times, the prosperity of this sea-port very materially depended on the herring-fishery: but, of late years, the herrings, with that apparent caprice which characterizes their movements, seem to have left the Swedish coast. Dr. Thomson insinuates that they feed on a species of minute crab, by propagating

propagating the breed of which they might be attracted to particular shores : but he neither quotes his authority for this supposed food of the herring, nor does he prove that the crab in question can be colonized at the pleasure of man. There are, we believe, some well attested instances of small fishes, and of even the fry of its own species, having been found in the stomach of the herring : but the nature of its general aliment is still involved in mystery.

The rate of living in Gottenburg has kept pace with the recent extension of its trade ; insomuch that, within the short period of twelve years, the price of many commodities has been more than tripled ; and the charges of very indifferent lodging at the hotels exceed those for comfortable accommodation in England. — The surrounding country has a singular aspect, as it consists of low ridges of gneiss, perfectly naked, running in various directions, and separated from one another by valleys of about a mile in width, which produce ‘rice’ (doubtless a misprint for *rye*) and big. The crops were nearly ripe, but almost choked with thistles and other weeds.

The following information will be useful to all those who may have occasion to travel in Sweden :

‘As there are no stage-coaches, it is necessary for every traveller to be provided with a carriage of his own. It ought to be light, and in summer an open carriage is much more useful and agreeable than any other. The horses in Sweden are small but very active, and remarkably sure footed. Notwithstanding the great number of horses which I employed, in a journey of above 1200 miles, I never saw one of them stumble. Their harness consists of little else than common ropes, which you supply yourself. In general about half an hour was requisite to yoke a couple of horses to our carriage. Posting is under the regulation of government. Post-houses are provided at regular distances all over the country. The person who keeps these houses is called the *gästgifvar*, and he is obliged by law to keep a certain number of horses for posting. These vary from one to twenty, but the usual number is two, four, or six. Besides these, there is a certain number which the peasants in the neighbourhood are obliged to furnish, and to send once a day to the post-house ; these are called *bolhåster*, or relay horses ; these vary from two to twenty-two. In some counties, as Smoland, when the population is small, and the intercourse not great, there are no *bolhåster* at all. In travelling through such counties, unless you take care to send a person before you, you are quite sure to be detained several hours at each stage before horses can be procured. There is a third class of horses, called reserve horses, and which in fact consist of all the horses in the district. These the post-master is entitled to call upon in case of necessity ; but a considerable time always elapses before they can be procured. If you wish to drive rapidly in Sweden, you must send a person before you, to order horses by a particular hour. This person

is called a *forbod*, and by means of him you may travel as rapidly in Sweden as in England.

' You pay for your horses at the rate of eighteen skillings, or nine-pence sterling, per horse, for the Swedish mile, which is almost exactly equal to $6\frac{1}{2}$ English miles. But when you take horses from a town, however small, the rate of posting for that stage is increased 50 per cent., or instead of eighteen skillings you pay twenty-seven skillings, or thirteen-pence halfpenny per mile. The boy that goes with you to bring back the horses expects something : he is very well satisfied with about two-pence sterling. When you go to a stage, you must inquire for the *hollenkar*, a boy kept by the post-master for the purpose of getting horses for travellers. When he brings the horses, he generally expects something for his trouble, though he does not always get it. In every post-house, there is a day-book kept, in which you write down your name, where you are going, where you came from, how many horses you take ; and if you have met with any grievance, there is a place for noting down your complaint. These day-books are carried once a month to the Governor of the district to be inspected : so that if any irregularity happens it cannot remain unknown. I observed many complaints in these day-books, but they were never made by Swedes, always by foreigners. Hence I concluded that most of them were imaginary, and arose from ignorance of the laws and customs of the country.'

The road to the falls of Trollhätte lay partly along the banks of the Gotha, a river which for size is compared to the Forth at Stirling. For some time, the face of the country resembled that in the neighbourhood of Gottenburg : but, on advancing northward, the rocks became lower ; and the trees, which first appeared scattered, gradually assumed the semblance of a forest, overshadowing the country. The prevailing species are the Scotch fir and the spruce ; the former affording the *white*, and the latter the *red* wood. The birch, oak, and alder, are likewise frequent. Nearly one half of the last stage consists of a natural pavement of gneiss, which extends several miles in every direction, and is perfectly destitute of vegetation.

Dr. Thomson bears his testimony to the goodness of the roads in Sweden, which he ascribes to the abundance of excellent materials, and the lightness of the wheel-carriages. All the land under cultivation is inclosed with palings, which are so constructed as to occasion a very superfluous expenditure of wood ; and these fences frequently cross the road, so as sometimes materially to affect the rate of travelling. The fields under tillage are often laid out in broad ridges, which alternate with different sorts of grain ; probably on the old and wretched principle of *run-rig*, which is said to be still practically recognized in some districts of Caithness and other parts of the north of Scotland. The untilled grounds exhibit neither furze nor broom, (which cannot resist the winter's cold,) but a great profusion

profusion of juniper-bushes ; and the commons abound more in wild berries than in grass.

The Swedish peasants are remarkable for their flaxen hair, and for their ruddy countenances, so expressive of the docility and good-humoured dispositions which eminently characterize their conduct. Most of them can read and write ; and they are generally clean, and well dressed in a coarse blue cloth, manufactured in their own country. The men wear round hats ; and most of them have a silk handkerchief about their necks. Their principal failing is a disposition to take advantage of the necessities of strangers. — Such is the substance of the principal observations which occurred to our tourist, in his progress from Gottenburg to Trollhätte ; a distance of 53½ English miles :

• The falls of Trollhätte constitute an object that must ever be viewed with astonishment and delight. The river above the falls is nearly a mile broad ; but at Trollhätte it is confined by two low hills of gneiss into a very narrow channel, which is rendered still less by several rocky islands scattered through it. The falls are four in number, and occupy the space of two miles. The whole height from which the water descends amounts, we were told, to 100 feet. This, divided by four, gives only 25 feet for the height of each fall. There is, therefore, no visible fall as in some rivers, I mean no visible interval between the river and the bottom in any place, as when water issues from a spout ; all that we see is the water moving with prodigious rapidity, boiling up in every place, and all covered over with foam. The vapour rises visibly in the form of steam. The noise which this vast body of water makes in falling at such a rate for the space of two miles is prodigious, and adds greatly to the grandeur of the scene. There is one fall of sixty feet, but only a small part of the river goes that way. I conceive it is one of the sluices cut by Pöhlen, during the reign of Charles XII. ; though no person on the spot could give me any accurate information on the subject.

Though the project of rendering the river navigable, at these falls, was so often unsuccessfully attempted by the kings of Sweden, it was adopted by a private company in 1793, and completed, without any difficulty, in seven years. This canal, which is dug out of the gneiss rock, is 1400 feet long, 24 broad, and 8 deep. The junction of the lakes Venner and Hjellmar, a scheme which is at present prosecuting under the auspices of Mr. Telford, and his pupil M. Bagge, will complete the whole plan of the inland-navigation of the country.

Near the hill of Kunnekülle, a manufactory of alum, and another of window-glass, drew the author's attention. The aluminous schistus is partly burned in the open air, and partly employed in evaporating the alum lyes, by which means the slate is at once burned and the lyes are sufficiently evaporated.

The

The process of making the glass-panes differs, in some respects, from the practice in France and England: it is much slower, but produces more accurate and more beautiful glass.

A separate chapter is devoted to the mineralogy of West Gothland; and although the non-arrival of the Doctor's specimens has prevented him from filling up all the details, the principal features, which he sketches from his notes and recollections, (illustrated as they are by the geognostic map of Baron Hermelin,) will be found not undeserving of attentive consideration.

The two highest hills in this province are Kunnekülle and Hunneberg, the first not exceeding 920 feet, and the latter 518, above the level of the sea. All the southern and western parts of this district, which consist of ridges of rocks, with interspersed valleys, are composed of gneiss, which probably forms the general basis of Sweden. In some places, this rock is distinguished from granite only by its slaty texture, the felspar predominating in its composition, and occasionally to such a degree as almost to exclude the other constituents. It also frequently contains beds of hornblend, of quartz and hornblend, and of felspar. Besides its legitimate ingredients, it sometimes presents crystals of hornblend, calcareous spar, pyrites, and titanium. The twelve hills, which lie immediately over the gneiss in this part of the country, are supposed by the Swedish mineralogists to consist of transition-rocks: but Dr. Thomson, for reasons which he states at some length, is inclined to believe that they are composed of the *floetz rocks* of Werner, and that some of them are capped with the newest *floetz* trap. The principal strata of these hills are of sandstone, aluminous schistus, fetid limestone, and a capping of Swedish trap, supposed to be a modification of greenstone.

All that portion of West Gothland which borders on the great lakes, and the middle parts of it, consist of alluvial clay, or sand; over which blocks of gneiss are thickly scattered, accompanied by appearances which seem to indicate that these detached masses formerly existed *in situ*, in the state of rocks.

To this chapter is annexed a list of the quadrupeds and birds that have been found in Gothland, copied from M. Bilberg's paper, published in the Memoirs of the Swedish Academy for 1809. This catalogue, which is in some respects incomplete, is terminated by a description and plate of *Falco umbrinus*, a species of eagle unknown to this country, and very rare in Sweden. Among the birds, it is somewhat singular to find the *nightgale*; which does not occur in Scotland, though the winters are much milder in the northern parts of our island than in Sweden.

From

From Trollhätte, the travellers proceeded through the fine province of Nerike, and part of Westmanland, to Stockholm. The southern and western districts of the former consist of low ridges of gneiss, and intervening valleys: but the rocks are neither so high nor so abrupt as in West Gothland, and occasionally contain beds of primitive lime-stone. The central and northern portions are quite flat, and consist partly of alluvial soil, over which are dispersed enormous blocks of gneiss; and partly of flötz beds, in some of which are mines of magnetic iron-stone, with quartz, garnet, lime, and felspar, for vein-stones. The greatest part of Nerike is covered with forests of pine and birch; and the roads are in general sandy. *Tobacco* is cultivated to a considerable extent, not only in this province but in various tracts of Sweden; the inhabitants at large being much addicted to the use of this herb, and 'the pipe being as constant a companion on a journey, as a staff or a great coat in this country.' The potatoe-crop is never considerable, that root being in much less request than it ought to be; and the kind usually presented at table is very small, unripe, and waxy. Perhaps, however, it is unreasonable to expect that a plant, which is so liable to be injured or destroyed by early frosts as the potatoe, should regularly acquire maturity in the latitude of Sweden.

The manufactures of fire-arms, cloth, and tapestry, for which Orebro was once distinguished, appear to have entirely declined: but the place derives some importance from the occasional meeting of the National Diet; of which the constitution is here distinctly sketched.

Köping, though insignificant in itself, is duly commemorated as the residence of Scheele. Of this distinguished chemist, the ensuing notices, which are not generally known, were communicated by his intimate friend, Assessor Gahn of Fahlun:

'Scheele came over to Helsingborg, and after his apprenticeship was at an end, he went first to Stockholm, and then to Upsala. From the very commencement of his career, the whole bent of his mind was towards chemistry. He never thought nor talked of any other subject. The knowledge that he had acquired, long before he became known to the world at large, was greatly above that of any of his contemporaries. Mr. Gahn's acquaintance with him began by an accident. He went one day into an apothecary's shop at Upsala, who knowing him to be a chemist, and to be intimate with Bergman, asked him to explain a difficulty which had lately occurred to him. The apothecary had accidentally mixed together a quantity of salt-petre that had been exposed for some time to a red heat and cream of tartar. The instant the mixture was made, a smell of nitric acid became very perceptible. So that in this case it would seem that tartaric acid, contrary to the usual affinities, had disengaged nitric

acid,
then

from potash. The apothecary wanted an explanation of this anomaly. Mr. Gahn was unable to give any satisfactory account of it; and on stating the case to Bergman, the Professor was equally at a loss for an explanation. A few days after Mr. Gahn went back to the same shop to acknowledge his inability to solve the difficulty. He found a young sombre looking man behind the counter, who told him that the apparent anomaly was easily explained. "Nitric acid," said he, "like sulphuric, is capable of existing in two states. In the first state it has a stronger affinity for potash than tartaric acid, but in the second state it has a weaker. By exposing nitre to a red heat, the acid is changed from the first to the second state. Hence it ought to be separated by tartaric acid, as turns out to be the fact when the experiment is tried." This young man was Scheele. Thus their acquaintance began, and it soon ripened into friendship.

Before this period Scheele had written a dissertation on the tartaric acid, which he had sent in manuscript to Bergman, who was professor of chemistry at Upsala, and the man of the greatest chemical reputation in Sweden. The name of Scheele at this time was unknown to Bergman. He merely looked at the title of the manuscript, and perceiving that it treated of a subject which had been already handled by Margraff, took it for granted that it would contain nothing new, and therefore set it aside without reading it. Scheele felt indignant at this treatment. He sent another copy of his manuscript to Retzius, at that time a professor in the University of Lund. Retzius soon after published this treatise as his own, without so much as mentioning Scheele's name; and the curious discoveries contained in it were for a considerable time ascribed to Retzius by the chemical world. Even the Stockholm Academy fell into this natural mistake. I do not know whether the preceding anecdote has been before published; but it ought to be generally known, not only that the character of Retzius may be properly appreciated; but that the curious discoveries respecting tartaric acid may be ascribed to their true author.

In consequence of this negligence on the part of Bergman, Scheele was very much offended. He was not willing to ascribe it to the true cause, inadvertence; but thought it rather proceeded from the pride of station and from supercilious contempt. It was with much difficulty that Mr. Gahn prevailed upon him to allow himself to be introduced to Bergman. But after the ice was once broken, they became intimate and inseparable friends.

Scheele all his life long was constantly sighing for independence; and as his ambition was not high it was easily gratified. On the death of an apothecary at Köping, he agreed with the widow of the deceased to succeed him in the business. At first his circumstances were straitened. To abstain from chemical experiments was impossible; but they were made in an open room for want of a better. In this way he continued for several years, and caught in consequence violent rheumatisms, which at last terminated fatally. Though towards the end of his life he was able to fit up a comfortable laboratory, the malady had been already contracted, and he fell a sacrifice in the year 1786.

• Scheele

' Scheele was certainly the most astonishing chemist, and one of the most extraordinary men that ever existed. Very little progress had been made in discovery till he began his career. Every thing remained unexplored, even the proper mode of proceeding required to be invented. He started up all at once superior to all his contemporaries, with views more extended, and industry more persevering and invincible. Every dissertation produced a discovery, and altered and extended the chemical horizon. It is not too much to say that almost every chemical discovery published in Sweden during his life-time originated with Scheele. It is well known that he was a German, and that he could not use any other language with facility. His papers were all originally written in German, and translated into Swedish *by somebody or other*, before they were published. I do not know whether he even understood English and French. As he never enjoyed a liberal education, and spent his life-time behind an apothecary's counter, it is more than probable that he did not.'

Vesteros, which stands on lake Mäler and is the seat of a bishop, is favourably situated for trading intercourse with Westmanland, Dalecarlia, and the capital of the kingdom; and it is reckoned a thriving town, though its inhabitants scarcely amount to three thousand.

Before he enters on his account of Stockholm, Dr. T. offers some sagacious strictures on the low state of agriculture in Sweden; and, should his hints be adopted by the land-owners and farmers, he will have conferred a lasting benefit on the country which he describes.

The present number of inhabitants in Stockholm is estimated at 72,652, whereas in 1751 they were rated at only 55,700. The number of masters exercising the different trades and professions has, on the contrary, rather diminished; an apparent anomaly, which the author attributes to the baneful influence of corporation-laws. From the table to which he refers, it is manifest that several of these masterships have rather diminished than increased from 1730 to 1797: but the inference, that this diminution proceeds from the overgrown privileges of the trading bodies, cannot be held conclusive until it be proved, in the first place, that such undue privileges exist in Stockholm, and, secondly, that tradesmen do not conduct their business on a more extensive scale at present than in former times. The general aspect of this northern capital, its public buildings, institutions civil, literary, and religious, &c. are described in the author's plain and perspicuous manner: but particular notices of them, however much abridged, would overload our report, and preclude the insertion of more original matter.

The history and character of the degraded King of Sweden are somewhat needlessly pourtrayed in a distinct chapter; and we applaud Dr. Thomson's candor more than his penetration, when

when he makes the honest avowal that his former admiration of this ill-starred personage was grounded on the coinage of English news-papers. We gladly make room for his portrait of a more profound and efficient ruler :

‘ A new Crown Prince was to be elected, and various candidates offered themselves. It is universally known that the choice fell upon Bernadotte, Prince of Ponté Corvo, who at that time had the command of a French army in the north of Germany, and who had begun his career as a private soldier in the French army. By what secret springs this election was conducted it was quite impossible to learn. But the nature of the choice, and the war with Great Britain, lead one strongly to suspect the all-powerful application of French influence. The Swedes all vehemently deny the existence of any such influence, and affirm that the election of Bernadotte was very much contrary to Bonaparte's wishes. But I do not believe that any one of those persons, with whom I conversed on the subject, had any means of acquiring accurate information. The secret means employed were probably known only to a very small number of individuals; and Bernadotte's consummate prudence, for which he is very remarkable, will probably bury the real truth for ever in oblivion, unless some unforeseen change in the affairs of Europe should make it his interest to divulge the secret.

‘ There can be no doubt that Bernadotte was very popular both in Hanover, and at Hamburgh, and that his behaviour to the Swedes, when he was applied to about concluding a peace with the French Emperor, had made a powerful impression in his favour. His great abilities were generally known, and Sweden stood greatly in need of a Prince of abilities to raise her from the state of extreme feebleness into which she had fallen. It is affirmed in Sweden, that a coolness had for some time existed between Bonaparte and the Prince of Ponté Corvo, in consequence of Bonaparte, upon some occasion or other, *throwing up to him* his original rank of a private soldier. Such a story is well suited to the impetuous rudeness which characterizes Bonaparte; but it does not agree with the mild temper and consummate prudence of Bernadotte. To judge from appearances, he has not a good opinion of his own countrymen, for not a single Frenchman is employed either in the Swedish army or in any other situation, and all the applications which have been made to him by Frenchmen have been uniformly refused. It was he that brought about a peace between Great Britain and Sweden. The French Emperor was hurt at his conduct, and in consequence took possession of Swedish Pomerania. When the Russian war began last summer with France, he went over to Obo, had a conference with the Emperor of Russia, and it is confidently asserted that he planned the campaign which proved ultimately so successful to Russia and so disastrous to France. Yet all this while he has most carefully abstained from issuing any declaration, or involving Sweden in any active part against France. If Bonaparte prove ultimately successful, there can be little doubt that his conduct will admit of apology with Bonaparte, in consequence of the difficulty of his situation: while, on the other hand, if Britain and Russia prevail, he has gone far enough to secure the

friendship of these two powers. Nothing therefore can be more skillful than the conduct which he has pursued. Indeed it may be questioned whether any other would not in the present circumstances have endangered his own situation, or the very existence of Sweden as a nation. Nothing would have been easier for him than to have induced Sweden to enter into an alliance with France. The Swedish nobility have all had a French education, and they have adopted a good deal of the manners and opinions of that volatile and unprincipled nation. The Swedes have been so long accustomed to an alliance with France, that it has become in some measure natural to the nation. They have imbibed the opinions, which Bonaparte has divulged with so much industry, respecting the danger of Great Britain holding the dominion of the sea, and the injury which British commerce and British manufactures do to other nations. These opinions I admit to be inconsistent with the knowledge of the first principles of commerce and even of common sense, and show a most miserable ignorance of the real interests and real state of Europe. Yet I have heard them gravely maintained by some of the most sensible men in Sweden. If to all this we add the severe treatment which they have met with from the Russians, and the natural jealousy which every nation must have of a powerful and encroaching neighbour, we shall not be surprized that the great body of the Swedes in the present war take the part of the French, and are secretly hostile to Britain and Russia. When I was at Stockholm this appeared very strongly marked. When any news arrived of successes gained by the Russians, the faces of every one you met indicated disappointment and uneasiness. When news arrived of successes gained by the French, every person was in ecstasy. I except from this the German and British merchants who reside in Sweden, and who constitute a small but respectable and wealthy body.

But had Bernadotte induced the Swedes to unite with France, the infallible consequence would have been, supposing Russia capable of standing her ground, that he would have been attacked by Great Britain and Russia, two powers that could with the utmost ease have divided and conquered the whole kingdom. On the other hand, had he united with Russia and declared war against France, the consequence would have been, supposing Bonaparte successful, that he would have been driven from the Swedish throne, and reduced again to a private station. We must admit therefore that no part of the conduct of Bernadotte has hitherto laid open his real intentions; if he has any other intentions than to preserve his situation, and be regulated in his alliances by circumstances.

As soon as Bernadotte was elected Crown Prince of Sweden, some of the Swedish bishops went over to Denmark, and made him sign a renunciation of the Roman Catholic religion, and an acknowledgement that he had embraced the Lutheran tenets. At the same time he was baptized by the name of Charles John (*Carl Johan*). When he landed in Sweden he was met by a nobleman sent by the Diet to receive him. As soon as they met they embraced. By some accident the two stars with which they were decorated caught hold of each other, so that when they attempted to separate, they found themselves entangled. "Monseigneur," said the Nobleman, "nous nous sommes attaché." "J'espère," answered the Crown Prince with-

without hesitation, "qu'il est pour jamais." Soon after his arrival in Sweden, he sent his wife and his whole family out of the country, except his eldest son, Prince Oscar, a boy about fourteen years of age. It is well known that at present the rest of his family is in France. This step occasioned a good deal of speculation in Sweden, and much anxiety to know the reason of a conduct apparently so unnatural. A nobleman one day said to him, that the Swedes had always been accustomed to hear a great deal concerning the Royal Family; that they would of course be very inquisitive about his family, and on that account he wanted to know from his Royal Highness what answer he should give if any person asked him about the family of the Crown Prince: "In that case," replied Bernadotte, "you may say that you know nothing of the matter."

'The Crown Prince seems in fact to be really the King of Sweden. Charles XIII. never appears in public, and he is so old and infirm that he is not probably able to manage the affairs of the kingdom, were he even so inclined. The first care of the Crown Prince was to restore the army which had been destroyed during the unfortunate wars of the late King, and to bring it again to a state of respectability. The French mode of levying troops by conscription, which the late King had in vain attempted to introduce, was resorted to. The Swedish army at present amounts to 50,000 men, besides the supplementary troops, who may be 30,000 more; but are chiefly boys or young men under twenty. All the troops are dressed in French uniform, and the French tactics have been introduced into all the regiments. I saw a review of about 6000 Swedish troops. The orders were given by the Crown Prince himself, and the skill of the troops and the rapidity of their movements seemed to me to be very great. Every Swedish soldier has a house and a piece of ground assigned to him, by the cultivation of which he supports himself when not in the field. When called out he is supported by government. By this contrivance the Swedish army costs the country much less than it otherwise would do. The men are kept from vice, and their health and hardihood is probably promoted. When they are collected for drill, the first thing they do every morning on assembling is to sing a hymn. This practice they follow likewise when they go into action. It is said to have originated with Gustavus Adolphus.

'The Crown Prince seems to be very popular in Sweden, every body spoke well of him. When he passed by the ranks of the Swedish troops, he was received with loud huzzas. He is a middle aged man, with a very dark complexion, an agreeable expressive countenance; but a little disfigured by the size of his nose. He cannot express himself intelligibly in Swedish. The person who has the charge of his horses is an Englishman, who has been with him these eight years.'

A portrait of Bernadotte, which is prefixed to the volume, fully illustrates this description of him; particularly in the unparalleled prominence of the nose.

[To be continued.]

ART.

ART. II. *Memoirs of the late Rev. Theophilus Lindsey, M.A.* : including a Brief Analysis of his Works ; together with Anecdotes and Letters of eminent Persons, his Friends and Correspondents ; Also a General View of the Progress of the Unitarian Doctrine in England and America. By Thomas Belsham, Minister of the Chapel in Essex Street. 8vo. pp. 544. 14s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1812.

A *LIGHT shining in a dark place.*—Sterling integrity of mind, “unmixed with baser matter,” is a phenomenon that rarely makes its appearance. Not conscience, but prudence, is the pole-star by which the course of worldlings is directed : *virtus post nummos* is the prevailing motto ; and though the multitude are not without some faint respect for virtue, and may occasionally be wrought up to admiration of her, the uniform bent of their conduct demonstrates that they set a much higher value on sublunary wealth and grandeur than on this mental jewel.

“ ——— The saving doctrine preached by all,
From low St. James’s up to high St. Paul,”

is “Get money Jack ; honestly, if you can : but get money ;” and as long as the age is trained to so degrading a maxim, they who “fear God and nothing else” will have but few followers. It is curious to observe in what way the language of the vulgar is accommodated to their low standard of morality. How commonly are rigidly conscientious persons represented as “more nice than wise,”—as “standing in their own light,”—as “losing many a good thing for mere squeamishness,”—and as “poor good mistaken creatures.” If, however, the homage which is paid by the great mass of mankind to genuine worth be, for the cause above assigned, faint and discouraging, we may nevertheless be sure that such pre-eminence will not go without an appropriate reward even in this world ; and that, in the worst of times, a noble few will be found who will assert its honour and weave for it a wreath of glory. Possessing minds of a superior *calibre*, and elevated above the sordid mists and fogs which envelop ordinary mortals, these persons estimate things by a sacred standard ; and, uninfluenced by vulgar misapprehension, they regard riches and honours as mere dust on the scale when weighed against integrity, and external homage as dearly purchased by the loss of self-esteem.

Men of this stamp will know how to appreciate the character of the venerable Theophilus Lindsey, and will participate in the enthusiasm here displayed in its delineation by the respectable author of this memoir. Distinct from all consideration of the system of religious doctrine which he advocated,

the life and conduct of Mr. Lindsey are intitled to the warmest and most lasting eulogy. Such purity of heart, such a holy love of truth, such sacrifices offered on her altar, and such zeal and disinterestedness in forwarding that which he deemed to be her cause, place him in the list of those confessors "of whom the world was not worthy." It is not necessary to be an Unitarian in order to respect this apostle of Unitarianism *. Bigots may hate his name, but to do this they must be bigots indeed: the timid, while they feel themselves unequal to his intrepidity, will nevertheless reverence it; and the whole race of time-servers and men-pleasers (not few in number) will not be put in the best temper with themselves by the contrast which subsists between his conduct and their own. Happy is it for the united cause of truth and virtue, that such characters do occasionally illumine our moral and intellectual horizon: they contradict the prevailing opinion of the degraded state of human nature: they keep us from despairing of the cause of virtue; and though no great success would ensue from saying to those whom it may concern, "Go and do thou likewise," we must yet indulge the hope that the life of such a man as Theophilus Lindsey will not be read in vain.

Mr. Belsham is fully aware that the specimen of biography which he has here furnished will not be generally attractive; expressly observing in his preface that 'the memoir will be of little interest to any but those to whom a calm impartial inquiry into the sacred Scriptures is a consideration of supreme importance, and by whom the firm undaunted profession of Christian truth is regarded as among the first of duties.' As the history of Unitarianism is intimately blended with the particulars of the life of its distinguished professor, and as the articles of the Unitarian creed are often repeated and defended in these pages, it may fairly be supposed that the narrative before us will be peculiarly acceptable to the members of the

* Dr. Doddridge, whose doctrinal sentiments were very different, thus expressed himself in a letter to a friend, on the subject of Mr. Lindsey's resignation: "Were I to publish an account of silenced and ejected ministers, I should be strongly tempted to insert Mr. Lindsey in the list which he mentions in his apology with so much veneration. He certainly deserves as much respect and honour as any one of them for the part he has acted. Perhaps few of them exceeded him in learning and piety. I venerate him as I would any of your confessors. As to his particular sentiments they are nothing to me. An honest pious man, who makes such a sacrifice to truth and conscience as he has done, is a glorious character, and deserves the respect, esteem, and veneration of every true Christian." *Orton's Letters*, Vol. ii. p. 159.

Unitarian church: yet, as Mr. Belsham is one of those few writers who is superior to party-irritations and misrepresentations, and, to his praise be it spoken, discovers on every occasion a readiness to deal with perfect fairness by all those who embrace sentiments opposite to his own, we should not be displeased to find that his present work obtained readers out of the pale of his own communion.

‘The chief design of publishing this memoir is to exhibit the picture of an eminently virtuous, pious, and disinterested mind in circumstances of great difficulty and perplexity, as an example to others who may find themselves in similar difficulties; and as an encouragement to sacrifice every secular consideration to the cause of religious truth, and to prefer the performance of duty and the approbation of conscience to all the honours and emoluments which the world can offer.’

We have already observed that we have little expectation of seeing Mr. Lindsey's example generally followed: but the record of his virtue may in various ways promote the cause of religious truth; and we shall therefore, without farther preamble, hasten to give an abstract of the work before us, which is divided into 15 chapters, and enriched by a long appendix, containing a various and amusing selection of original letters.

We are first presented with an account of the interesting subject of this memoir from the time of his birth to his settlement at Catterick, in Yorkshire. Here we are told that the *Rev. Theophilus* * Lindsey was born at Middlewich, in Cheshire, June 20. 1723, O. S.; that his father Robert Lindsey was a mercer in that town, and also possessed a lucrative concern in the salt-works in the neighbourhood; and that his mother, whose maiden name was Spencer, was distantly related to the Marlborough family. His patrons in early life were among the great. After a school-education, by which he was well instructed in classical literature, he was admitted as a student at St. John's College, Cambridge, May 21. 1741; and here his literary attainments and exemplary conduct attracted such general notice, that, when the late learned and pious Dr. Reynolds, Bishop of Lincoln, inquired for some senior student under whose care in the University he might place his grandson, a promising youth of fifteen, Mr. Lindsey was the person recommended to that office. Such was the manner in which Mr. L. discharged the important trust thus confided to him, and such were the mutual affection and esteem which were excited in the minds both of tutor and pupil by this connection,

* Mr. L. was named Theophilus after his godfather Theophilus, Earl of Huntingdon.

that it led to the most firm and tender friendship; and to such a perfect assimilation of mind that this pupil, Richard Reynolds, Esq. of Paxton, in Huntingdonshire, is selected by Mr. Belsham as the properest person to whom the memoir before us could be inscribed. Having taken his degrees with high reputation, and been elected a Fellow of his college, Mr. L. turned his thoughts to the church, his chief ambition having been to become a minister of the gospel; and having at that period no objections to the Liturgy and Articles of the establishment, he was ordained in the 23d year of his age by Dr. Gibson, Bishop of London, and was presented to a chapel in Spital Square, by Sir G. Wheeler, at the request of Lady Ann Hastings, his constant friend and benefactress. Not long after his settlement in London, he was received, on the recommendation of his noble friends, as domestic chaplain, into the family of Algernon Duke of Somerset; on the decease of the Duke, he was continued in that office by the Dutchess; and at her request he accompanied her grandson, the present Duke of Northumberland, to the continent, where he continued two years. The letters printed in the Appendix shew on what terms Mr. L. stood with these noble personages; while their conduct towards him will as clearly prove how solicitous they were for his advancement in the line of his profession. On his return from the continent, he was presented by the (then) Earl of Northumberland to the valuable rectory of Kirby Whiske, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, where he resided three years: but, at the request of the Huntingdon family, who considered themselves as having a prior claim to the honour of providing for him, he in the year 1756 resigned his rectory in Yorkshire, in order to succeed to the living of Piddletown, in Dorsetshire, which was in the gift of the Earl of Huntingdon. Having, however, while he was minister of this parish, united himself in marriage (Sept. 29. 1760,) with Miss Hannah Elsworth, the step-daughter of Archdeacon Blackburne (the celebrated author of "The Confessional"), a lady whose principles and views were congenial with those which he was beginning to entertain, he was desirous of returning to the north, in order to be near the Archdeacon; and in 1763 he was enabled to accomplish this object by obtaining permission to exchange his living in Dorsetshire for the vicarage of Catterick in Yorkshire. Before he reached Catterick, doubts respecting the doctrine of the Trinity had found their way into his mind; and from the period of his connection with the family of the author of "The Confessional," his studies were of a nature to lead him to question the soundness of the established creed: but, though the state of his opinions induced him to decline those
flattering

flattering offers of his noble patrons which must ultimately have placed a mitre on his head, it did not prevent that second subscription to the Articles which was a necessary preliminary to his induction into the living of Catterick. His biographer, being induced particularly to explain this case, has quoted that part of Mr. Lindsey's Apology in which he himself details the interesting process of his doubts on this trying occasion; and the statement will be satisfactory to all those who are capable of judging of the nature of his embarrassments. The chains which education, professional habits, and early attachments, fasten on the mind, are too strong to be suddenly broken. When the opinions and practice of others, whom we respect, decide against a measure which we are inclined to adopt, it is very natural to hesitate, to resolve, and re-resolve, before we act; and the scale, in the first trials, preponderates in favour of that conduct which is least revolting to our social feelings, and to the general prejudices of the world. Conscience, when she requires great sacrifices, "gives us pause;" and though Mr. Lindsey accuses himself for remaining so long in the church after his sentiments were adverse to its creed, we are disposed rather to commend than to censure his deliberation in this respect; since a man ought to use all means of trying the strength and soundness of his new principles, before he ventures for their sole sake to relinquish a scene of present usefulness, to exchange a comfortable independence for a precarious subsistence, and to incur a considerable portion of obloquy. The ten years which Mr. Lindsey spent at Catterick were years of much uneasiness, as far as his inward convictions were concerned: but to his parishioners they were happy years; because no clergyman was ever more indefatigable in the discharge of his sacred duty; or could be more attentive to the young and to the poor, and more scrupulous in spending the income of his living for the benefit of those who were intrusted to his charge. At last, however, meeting with some learned friends whose views of scriptural doctrine were similar to his own, who were animated by the same ardent love of truth, and whose society, as he terms it, became 'one of his luxuries,' his objections to the Liturgy obtained so resistless a momentum that he could no longer with satisfaction to himself officiate as a clergyman of the church of England; and therefore he resolved, in spite of consequences, to resign the living of Catterick. Having made up his mind as to the course which he would pursue, he consulted those who could cordially enter into his views, feelings, and difficulties, and who used their best counsel to tranquillize his anxiety. Indeed, as his biographer observes:

‘ Mr. Lindsey was now in a situation to need all the comfort which his friends could administer. This venerable man was no professed ascetic : he was no enthusiast or visionary. He had ever lived in a station of ease and affluence, and comparatively high consideration. His company had been sought after by the opulent, the learned, and the great. Nor was he insensible to the advantages and the comforts of an eminent and respectable station. He had not been at all accustomed to struggle with difficulties, or to endure the privations and the obscurity of indigence. His delight had been to employ his affluence in doing good, and he had even made conscience of saving nothing for his own use from the revenues of his living.

‘ He was fully apprized, that if he carried his present virtuous resolution into effect, the scene would soon be changed. “ To leave a station of ease and affluence,” (he observes in his Farewell Address to his parishioners at Catterick,) “ and to have to combat with various straits and hardships of an uncertain world, affords but a dark prospect.” Instead of opulence and high estimation in the world, he clearly foresaw that the step he was about to take would entail poverty, contempt, neglect, and calumny. He could not but be sensible that by the majority of those who either knew him or who might hear of his withdrawing from the church, and who could not or would not duly appreciate his motives, his conduct would be severely censured as rash, fanatical, and absurd.’ —

‘ And, as he observes with great feeling, it was a severe aggravation of his distress, in the prospect of straits and difficulties, that he was *not alone* involved in them. The person who was most justly the dearest in the world to him must share in his privations and sufferings. And though that excellent person, as soon as his pious and honourable resolution was communicated, expressed the highest approbation of it, animated and encouraged him to pursue it, and urged him on with a zeal almost superior to his own, testifying the utmost readiness to forego ease and comfort, and, what was the most dear of all, the many opportunities of active benevolence, and to accompany him into the shades of solitude and poverty ; yet Mr. Lindsey did not on that account feel less sensibly the hardships and miseries to which his beloved and worthy consort would inevitably be exposed. But none of these things moved him. He fixed his eye upon the line of duty, and determined to adhere closely to it, and to leave the event to God.’

With Mr. L.’s scruples, are connected those of the petitioning clergy, who in 1772 addressed Parliament, praying to be released from subscription to the Articles : but we can not diverge into this episode. It must suffice here to relate that, notwithstanding the earnest persuasion of friends, and even the kind expostulation of his venerable diocesan, ‘ who wished to retain in the church so bright an ornament to the established priesthood,’ Mr. Lindsey determined to relinquish his living ; though, when ‘ he quitted Catterick, he and his wife had no more than twenty pounds a-year, and the interest of a very small sum of money !’ This resignation took place in the latter

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end of November 1773; and Mr. Belsham, after having recorded the fact, subjoins the following reflection:

‘ Thus did Mr. and Mrs. Lindsey, in obedience to the voice of enlightened conscience, resign their beloved residence at Catterick, with all its secular advantages and comforts, and with their little pittance of private property set out in the bleak month of December in search of a resting-place where they might be able to maintain themselves by honourable industry, and might best promote the great doctrine of the Divine Unity and the sole univalled supremacy of the Father.

“ The world was all before them, where to choose
Their place of rest, and Providence their guide.” ’

Before we proceed to notice the subsequent narrative, it will not be deemed improper to offer some reflections on the case of this confessor; adverting *en passant* to the views and feelings of those clergymen, who, though imbued with his sentiments, adopt a different conduct. The circumstance, which appears to have operated most forcibly on the mind of Mr. Lindsey, was not merely that he differed from the Church as to *the object of worship*, but that he deemed this *a matter of indispensable importance*; and as his pious wife entered fully into his ideas, and was also prepared with him to encounter all difficulties in the cause of Unitarianism, his resolution may be said to have been matured and executed under impressions in some respects favourable. Another clergyman, with doubts resembling those of Mr. L., *might not have so ghastly a help-mate*; and a large family, dependant for support on his living, might impress him with a conviction that the *strongest duty* called him to consult the welfare of his children. Besides, he might think that clear apprehensions concerning the mode of the divine subsistence are not absolutely necessary to devotion; that the excitement of piety in the minds of the people is of greater moment than correct notions respecting the object of adoration; and that, for the multitude at large, it is sufficient if they are led to worship all that is God. We do not, however, accede to this manner of reconciling an outward assent to a doctrine which is inwardly disapproved. We have heard also of some clergymen who, with respect to the Book of Common Prayer, regard themselves only as *readers*, and consider their assent to it as confined to an acquiescence in a matter of public establishment, in which the opinion of the minority, at least where outward acquiescence is concerned, ought to yield to that of the majority. They think it is very hard that they should be driven to the most cruel sacrifices by the mere errors of the public system; and their doctrine is,

“ When from the creed men go astray
The creed is more in fault than they.”

These individuals may be classed under the head of philosophical conformists. They have their public and their private doctrine. They regard the vulgar as not qualified for the reception of the latter; and they are of opinion that, as long as the former answers the ends of piety, virtue, and civil policy, it ought not to be rashly discarded. We are told of some Unitarian clergymen who compromise matters with conscience by making partial alterations in the Liturgy: but of this we highly disapprove. Such a half-measure is in every respect objectionable. It remains with a clergyman to consider how far it is a matter of imperious duty openly to avow his closet-opinions whenever those opinions are at variance with the established creed: but, if he makes them public by venturing to alter the Liturgy, we have no hesitation in saying that he ought to do more. Beyond all dispute, a Dissenter out of the Church must, as far as conscience is concerned, be more comfortable to himself than a Dissenter in it; yet, though we so highly applaud Mr. Lindsey's manly decision, we would not with unqualified severity condemn those who, though cherishing in their bosoms the same train of sentiments, have abstained from precisely adopting his line of conduct. It is to be recollected that a clergyman cannot shake off what is termed "his character." It is not *strictly* true that "the world is *all* before him:" he has not a choice of professions; he cannot be called to the bar; he cannot safely go into trade, &c.; and if he throws himself out of the Church, he must either descend to a private station and unite himself with a dissenting congregation, or, like Mr. L., make a church for himself. Unfortunately, our former habits remain with us, though our former opinions are abandoned. A clergyman, after having been educated as a Trinitarian, may become an Unitarian: but, having been long accustomed to a form of prayer, he would feel himself unequal to the task of extemporary prayer as it is practised among Dissenters; and it is worthy of notice that scarcely an instance occurs of a clergyman who has speculated on renouncing the form, as well as the doctrines, of our public Liturgy. Mr. Lindsey looked no farther than to the constitution of a church which should adopt a *Reformed Liturgy*, and in our vast metropolis such a speculation was by no means vague: but if, after the example set in the reign of Charles II., *two thousand confessors* were now to eject themselves from the established church, on account of the trinitarian complexion of the Liturgy, the city of London, large as it is, could not furnish unitarian societies for one-hundredth part of them. Taking it for granted that many of the clergy are not strictly orthodox, we have no right to dictate to them what measures they ought to pursue. It is possible that

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some of this large body, who may be desirous of a reform in the Liturgy, may think that, should a favourable moment for such a measure arrive, they should be of more service to the cause in the Church than out of it, and when acting in apparent hostility to it.—After all that has here been suggested, in order to give the subject its various bearings, we may be allowed to lament that things are in such a state as to force any of our clergy from the straight-forward line of conduct. The respectable Archdeacon Paley honestly confessed that “he could not afford to keep a conscience;” and others with his feelings have endeavoured to bring conscience to terms by a sort of compromise or composition. On this delicate point, we must leave every man to judge for himself: “to his own master he standeth or falleth.”

We now return to Mr. Lindsey; who, after having visited several friends, directed his steps towards London, where he and his fellow ‘pilgrim’ arrived January 10th, 1774, ‘providing themselves with a decent but humble lodging, viz. two rooms on a ground floor, in Featherstone Buildings, Holborn.’ Having, however, previously published his “Apology,” containing a full statement of his reasons for resigning his living, he did not long remain in obscurity. Active and zealous friends soon found him out, and tendered him their services. ‘The scene,’ as his biographer remarks, ‘began to brighten;’ his scheme of opening a chapel with a Reformed Liturgy was warmly patronized; and the requisite supplies being furnished, and the objections first made to licensing the place being overruled, the Chapel in Essex-street was opened for Unitarian worship on the 17th of April, 1774; so that, in less than three months after Mr. Lindsey’s arrival in town, ‘the vessel which he wished to launch was afloat, and had commenced its voyage, under the happiest auspices, and with the most propitious gales.’ On this occasion, Mr. B. pays a merited compliment to the tolerating character of the present reign, and observes that ‘the new sect was suffered quietly to emerge, and to find its level in the vast mass of religious dissentients.’ It is very certain that Mr. L.’s *début* in the metropolis as the apostle of Unitarianism was made under very encouraging circumstances; and his biographer has pleasure in quoting from a private letter an account of the opening of the chapel. He states ‘that it was well attended, that there were about ten coaches at the door,’ and that the following persons made a part of the congregation: ‘Lord Le Despenser, Dr. Franklin, Dr. Priestley, Dr. Calder, Mr. Shore junior, Mrs. Shore, Mrs. Robert Milnes, Miss Milnes, and Miss Shore, Dr. Hinckley, Dr. Chambers, Dr. Primatt, and two or three other clergymen, with a few barristers.’ We do

not wonder that men of science, who were not partial to the orthodox creed, should be interested in this experiment, and that some others of equal eminence should patronize this undertaking: but the flourishing state of this one society in London, and of a few congregations adopting similar principles in the country, by no means demonstrates, as Mr. B. would have us suppose, 'the fallacy of the commonly received opinion that Unitarianism is not a religion for the common people.' When the chapels in Moorfields and Tottenham Court-road are consecrated to Unitarian worship, and are affiliated to that in Essex-street, or when the majority of the people in the United States adopt the Reformed Liturgy, he may then fairly boast of the accession of the people: but experience seems to demonstrate that Unitarianism, as at present exhibited, is too simple for the multitude. It will be said that Judaism is nothing but pure Unitarianism or Theism, and that it fascinated the Jewish nation: let it be remembered, however, that this is not a case in point; for to this Theism was attached a splendid and imposing ritual, by which it was made acceptable to the people.

When Mr. L. commenced his career as a London preacher, he pledged himself not to treat of controversial matters in the pulpit: but it was not to be expected, after the bold step which he had taken, that he should give such a pledge; and we are not surprised at being told that he was forced soon to deviate from it. This deviation Mr. B. justifies, well observing,

'But if popular and pernicious errors are not to be combated, and if the plain simple doctrine of Christianity is not to be taught from the pulpit, it is difficult to say how public attention is to be excited: how the mass of hearers are to be instructed, and how truth is to make its way. In fact it appears, that where public teachers have confined themselves to mere moral instruction, and have either not touched at all upon Christian doctrine, or have veiled their real opinions under ambiguous language, the consequence has often been, that the teacher by reading and reflection has become enlightened while the hearer has been left in darkness; the preacher has reformed his speculative creed, while the hearers have retained all the erroneous and unscriptural notions which their pastor has long ago renounced. And as a natural consequence, when a vacancy has occurred, a successor has not unfrequently been appointed whose system has been directly opposite to that of the person who immediately preceded him. Those who hold sentiments to which they give the pompous name of orthodox or evangelical, never decline to avow their systems in the most manly and explicit manner. And they do right while they believe those sentiments to be true and important. How unbecoming then is it for those who hold a better and a purer faith to shrink from the public profession and defence of it, and to leave the adversary master of the field. It is a silly objection which is urged by some weak, or timid, or indolent, I will not say interested persons, that
speculative

speculative preaching, as they call it, tends to diminish a serious and pious disposition, and promote a sectarian spirit.'

It is unnecessary for us to follow the biographer through all the details of Mr. Lindsey's success, to enumerate the many respectable names which were added to his list of friends, to mark the periods of his several publications, and to give the substance of his correspondence. Though, in exhibiting the history of Unitarianism during the period of which he treats, Mr. Belsham has omitted no name or circumstance that reflects credit on the cause which he so ably espouses, and does not fail to notice the regular attendance of the late Duke of Grafton on the service in Essex-street, we cannot be expected to find room, in our limited pages, even for an abstract of the chapters. We must confine ourselves to a general specification of Mr. L.'s success, and shall quote the biographer's words in which he recounts the impression made on his own mind, not then inclined to Unitarianism, on his first attendance as a hearer in Essex-street; together with his reflections on the changes which that attendance, connected with other circumstances, subsequently produced.

' May the writer of this memoir be permitted to mention, that soon after this, in January 1779, being at that time the minister of a congregation in the country, and upon a visit in London, he was taken by a friend to attend the evening service in Mr. Lindsey's chapel. The subject of the discourse was a good conscience; and the seriousness and gravity with which it was treated confirmed him in the opinion which he had already formed from the perusal of some of Dr. Priestley's writings, that it was *possible* for a Socinian to be a good man. At the same time he felt a very sincere concern, that persons so highly respectable as Mr. Lindsey and Dr. Priestley, should entertain opinions so grossly erroneous as he then believed, and so disparaging to the doctrines of the gospel. This he ignorantly imputed to the little attention which they paid to the subject of theology. Little did he then suspect that further and more diligent and impartial inquiry would induce him to embrace a system from which his mind at that time shrunk with horror. And had it been foretold to him that in the course of years, and the revolution of events, he should himself become the disciple, the friend, the successor, and the biographer of the person who was then speaking; that it should fall to his lot from that very pulpit to pronounce before a crowded assembly of weeping mourners the funeral oration of Theophilus Lindsey, he should have regarded it as an event almost without the wide circle of possibilities, and as incredible as the incidents of an Arabian tale. So strange are the vicissitudes of human life, and so little does man know of what lies before him, or of the path in which the mysterious wisdom of Divine providence may conduct him.'

Mr. Lindsey's intimate friendship with Dr. Priestley is well known; and owing to this friendship the latter part of the
history

history of Dr. P. became so closely connected with that of Mr. L., that some particulars respecting the philosopher come in scarcely as a digression. We have therefore a full account of the reasons for Dr. Priestley's emigration to and reception in America; while by means of the correspondence maintained between these two friends, and the prior correspondence of Mr. Lindsey with Dr. Freeman, Mr. Vanderkemp, &c., we are furnished with a tolerably full view of the state of religion in the United States. One chapter opens with an account of the adoption of the Unitarian Liturgy by a congregation at the King's chapel at Boston, in New England: but it appears that the Unitarian ministers are rather persecuted than patronized in America; and we are told that Dr. P., notwithstanding his flattering reception in the new world, found the pulpits of the clergy shut against him. Though no established religion exists in America, and no particular church is distinguished by the marked patronage of the Government, we find a sort of Inquisition under the name of the Consociation established in the United States, which exerts itself for the support of orthodoxy. We apprehend that our readers will be amused by the following account of the state of religion at Boston, extracted from a letter written by a minister in America to his friend in England, in October 1810. He speaks of the hospitality as well as of the religious splendor of the Bostonians:

'The Monday after the General Election for the State, there is always a sermon preached to the Artillery Company. Mr. L. I was informed, gave them an excellent discourse, but I did not hear it. I went to the Meeting door, but the crowd was so great that I did not go in. The two Legislative Bodies, the Governor, and a number of the principal Gentlemen and Clergy, after the service was over, dined at Fanuel Hall, a large building over the market house, where they have their town meetings and transact their town business. Mr. Jackson the late British minister was there. I was invited to dine with them, but declined it. I was, however, introduced to Mr. Jackson at his lodgings, and once dined with him at Mr. B.'s. Mrs. Jackson with four other ladies were there, the rest of the party were gentlemen, about thirty in all. We had a splendid entertainment. Two courses of all the delicacies money could procure. Among the rest a dish of green peas, the first brought to market, which, the papers said, cost four dollars a bushel. The Bostonians paid Mr. Jackson great attention, and were much pleased with his behaviour while among them. I preached for Dr. E. Mr. B. Mr. L. and Mr. F. at the Stone chapel. The last mentioned gentleman was never episcopally ordained; of course, the ministers who have been so never exchange with him. In his place the Governor used to worship when the State was a British colony. It is a large stone building, just like an English church. The other three are large and costly buildings, and have numerous assemblies meet in them. The galleriss were designed principally for Negroes; but

but there is now a meeting built for the Africans to worship in by themselves. A mulatto minister preaches to them. There are said to be eleven or twelve hundred people of colour in the town. It was communion day at Mr. B.'s; there were about one hundred and fifty communicants. At Dr. E.'s there must have been two hundred. Never did I see such a display of plate on the communion table. At Dr. E.'s there were five or six flagons which held from three to four quarts each; six tankards, each containing a full quart; two dozen of cups of various sizes and forms, with six large plates for the bread; all handsome, and as bright as silver can be made. No person of a grain of sense can suppose these things to be of any importance. But as many of these people display great opulence in their own houses, I see nothing improper in their expending a portion of their superfluous wealth upon the house of God.'

As a minister of religion, Dr. Priestley was not suited to the taste of the Americans at large; and his emigration, at his time of life, was a measure not of the most prudent kind. We would not attribute to Dr. P. any unmanly fears: but he should have known that his habits had been too matured in the old world for transplantation into the new. It would have been better for him to have weathered out the storm, and have died surrounded by his old friends. Before he left England, he seems to have adopted some opinions that indicate imbecility of mind; one of which was that "the second appearance of Christ would take place in about twenty years." Mr. B. judiciously exposes this unfounded, this childish surmise; and with the view of ridiculing the practice of applying the language of the Apocalypse to passing events, he relates a humorous anecdote of the famous Will. Whiston: who, after having foretold "that the world would come to an end in twenty years," had the conscience to ask *thirty* years' purchase for a small estate which he had to sell.

Though Dr. Priestley's emigration to America was in our judgment indiscreet, he seems like a true optimist to have satisfied his own mind that it was for the best; and if he were obnoxious to the generality on account of his religious principles, he was compensated by receiving the most flattering attentions from President Jefferson. Some of the letters of this chief magistrate to the philosopher manifest an investigating, ingenuous, and comprehensive mind. Long as this article is already, we ought perhaps to find room for an extract from a letter to Dr. Priestley, dated Washington, June 19. 1802, commenting on a passage which the Doctor had inserted in the dedication of his Ecclesiastical History to the President, because it is indicative of the character of this public man.

"One passage in the paper you inclosed me must be corrected; it is the following: 'And all say that it was yourself more than any other

other individual that planned and established the Constitution.' I was in Europe when the Constitution was planned and established, and never saw it till after it was established. On receiving it I wrote strongly to Mr. Madison, urging the want of provision for the freedom of religion, freedom of the press, trial by jury, habeas corpus, the substitution of militia for a standing army, and an express reservation to the States of all the rights not specifically granted to the Union. He accordingly moved, in the first session of Congress, for these amendments, which were agreed to and ratified by the States as they now stand. This is all the hand I had in what related to the Constitution. Our predecessors made it doubtful how far even these were of any value. For the very law which endangered your personal safety, the Alien Act, as well as that which restrained the freedom of the press, were gross violations of them. However, it is still certain, that though written Constitutions may be violated in moments of passion or delusion, yet they furnish a text to which those who are watchful may again rally, and recall the people. They fix too for the people principles for their practical creed."

Mr. Jefferson's letter to Dr. P., on being presented with a copy of Dr. P.'s "*Comparative View of Socrates and Jesus*," shews how much his thoughts were turned to religious subjects: it will be found in the Appendix, p. 538.

With respect to Mr. Lindsey, all that remains for us to state is that in 1783 Dr. Disney was appointed his colleague; that the Essex-street Liturgy underwent a farther reform; that Mr. L., having reached the age of seventy, resigned his office to his colleague in 1793; that after his retirement from public duty he wrote and published his last work, intitled "*Conversations on the Divine Government*;" that, having enjoyed for some years an uncommon portion of health, he suffered a paralytic seizure in 1801; and that on the 3d of November 1808 he quietly departed this life, in the 86th year of his age. The following character is subjoined:

'Disinterested glowing benevolence, springing from rational, ardent, and deeply-rooted piety; supreme solicitude to discover truth; unwearied pains in searching after it, and inflexible firmness in what, after due enquiry, he believed to be right; just views of revealed religion, combined with earnest but not obtrusive zeal for their promulgation, and blended with the most unaffected humility, and a singular courteousness of manners, formed by early and familiar intercourse with the great; finally and eminently, a commanding sense of God and duty, constituted the principal lineaments in the character of this excellent and truly venerable man.'

This moral portrait appears to be correct; and we must add, in conclusion, that the whole of the memoir is highly creditable to its author. Though Mr. Belsham writes with energy, and is perhaps sometimes too encomiastic in his expressions, he displays great

great temper and impartiality; uniting, with a zeal for truth, a most enlarged charity, and a philosophic self-command which very few controversialists possess.

ART. III. *The present State of Portugal, and of the Portuguese Army*; with an Epitome of the ancient History of that Kingdom; a Sketch of the Campaigns of the Marquis of Wellington for the last four Years: and Observations on the Manners and Customs of the People, Agriculture, Commerce, Arts, Sciences, and Literature. By Andrew Halliday, M.D., late Assistant Inspector of Hospitals with the Portuguese Forces. 8vo. pp. 435. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

WE had occasion to notice a publication by Dr. Halliday, on the subject of Portugal, in our lxviiiith Vol. N.S. p. 416.; and the present is an extension and in several respects a correction of that work, which is said to have been hurried through the press in the course of ten days. As the loose and general way, in which some of the statements were expressed, admitted of being interpreted in a manner altogether different from the author's meaning, Dr. H. wishes the public to withdraw its attention from his first production, and to consider the volume now before them as the proper record of his opinions: his remarks on the present state of Portugal are the result of personal observation; and, as the manuscript has not been submitted to the judgment of others, the sentiments and conclusions are exclusively his own.

In an introductory sketch of the history of the country, Dr. H. chuses to go so far back as Japhet, the son of Tubal; and having dedicated, rather unnecessarily, a chapter to the history of Portugal, from the earliest ages to its final subjugation by the Romans, he proceeds to a narrative of the principal occurrences from the invasion of the Goths to the peace of 1762. He comes next to the subject which formed the basis of his previous work, the state of the Portuguese army; and after a variety of observations on the internal condition of Portugal, relative to agriculture, population, trade, literature, &c., he concludes by a sketch of Lord Wellington's campaigns; the chief novelty in which is an account of the splendid operations of the summer of 1812, down to the unfortunate siege of Burgos.

As our former report adverted to the military institutions of the Portuguese, we shall now turn our attention to the state of their civil establishments; and here an English reader will have difficulty in believing the extent to which abuses were carried until very lately. The commissariat was managed on principles

so radically bad, that, although the expence was enormous, the army was frequently without bread for weeks together; and the provision-department was managed by a junta which sat in Lisbon, and had store-keepers, as they termed them, in every town. The mode of paying the farmers and provision-venders was so very tedious and uncertain, that every art was practised to bury and conceal grain; so that it not unfrequently happened that a corps of troops was suffering for want, while the neighbouring country, or even the village in which they were quartered, possessed considerable stores. The interference of the British was directed in the first instance to procure a fair price and regular payment to the peasantry; and the consequence has been that the latter are no longer afraid to bring forwards their grain for sale. In the medical department, ignorance and venality prevailed to an extraordinary degree: the higher appointments were complete sinecures, the physician-general having retired on full pay, while the surgeon-general had emigrated to Brazil, leaving a deputy who did no duty. Other gentlemen, called brigade-physicians, had never seen the troops to which they were said to belong; and though very well remunerated, their abode was to be traced only through the paylists of the Treasury, as they had retired to different country-towns, where they lived on their pensions, either in indolence or in the pursuit of private practice:

‘ The organization of the Regimental was, if possible, still worse than that of the General Staff. Every regiment was furnished with a Surgeon-major, and six Assistant-surgeons; but these, as if to defraud the country which incurred such an expence, were rendered nugatory and useless, and positively prevented from performing any duty whatever. The laws of Portugal prevent surgeons from interfering in any manner, or prescribing, in a medical case, if a physician lives in the district; and, by a law passed in favour of the apothecaries, they were prevented from compounding or mixing drugs; and I was told that they were sworn upon the Holy Evangelists, not to interfere in the drawing of teeth; the surgeon’s duty was to perform operations and dress wounds, but he was neither furnished with instruments to perform the first, nor means of doing the last. The sick soldier was therefore left to nature, or the chance succour of some convent or charitable institution, until he could be removed to a general military hospital, where he came under the treatment of civil physicians and surgeons, and from which it rarely happened that he returned to his corps.

‘ Many of the gentlemen who held the commission of Surgeon-majors of regiments, had never performed one act of duty to a patient; and, from the manner in which they opposed every innovation, they seemed most firmly determined never to perform one. Others, favoured by their commanding officer, from whom, without any previous examination, they had received their appointments, lived, like
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the physicians above mentioned, remote from their corps, or served in the families of their patrons, or were lent to some grandee of the court. — The only person in the country who possessed sufficient virtue and resolution to reform the department, and whose abilities were equal to the task, was confined in the dungeons of the Inquisition, through the intrigues of the Physician general, who, it appeared, was anxious to make the most of his appointments. It is impossible to conceive how much art was used for obtaining possession of the sick soldier's body, in order that it might be made a medium of plunder upon the state. The general hospitals were spread over the country as traps into which he was made to fall, and from which, from his innate love of indolence, and the indulgence of better fare than he was accustomed to, he seldom made an effort to retreat; and, when once received within the walls of these hospitals, it was a difficult matter to get him removed from them, even when restored to perfect health. In such receptacles as these, founded and supported upon such principles, it need scarcely be added, that humanity, good order, and medical science, were equally forgotten and neglected. No one attempted to enforce even the shadow of discipline, and the picture which many of the general hospitals exhibited may be conceived, but cannot possibly be described. They were infinitely more destructive to the army than the sword of the enemy, and they would have destroyed it much faster than it could have been recruited, had it not been for the exertions of Marshal Beresford. He early foresaw the consequences of a department so regulated, and indeed they were soon felt; for when the army took the field in 1809, there were not ten Assistant-surgeons with the whole of the forces, and even those deserted when they came to pass the frontier.'

The task of correcting this mass of abuses fell to the share of Marshal Beresford and the British medical officers. Mr. Ferguson, who was appointed inspector of hospitals early in 1810, is reported by Dr. Halliday to have been indefatigable in his exertions, and to have effected an extraordinary reform in the short space of four months. To prevent the admission of ignorant or improper persons, a Board of examination was also established at Lisbon, and a material increase was made in the pay. The medical men introduced by the Portuguese Physician-general appeared to Dr. Halliday a full century behind his countrymen in the practical part of their profession. Some of them could reason theoretically on the *modus tractandi*, but in general an unfortunate variance prevailed between their rules and their practice:

'In the course of a most intimate acquaintance with the general hospital practice in Portugal for nearly two years, I can declare, that I never knew general blood-letting used as a remedy in disease; and I have often seen objections made to the use of blisters in complaints where a liberal and free use of the lancet would have been most effectual. I have seen patients die from impeded respiration, the consequence of active and severe inflammation of the pleura, while the

physician calmly ordered the sacraments to be administered, and trusted the cure to the known virtues of a common and trifling pectoral decoction. I allude to the practice of some physicians in the hospitals of Abrantes and Figueira.—

‘ They have no idea of the use of the cold bath in fever ; and so afraid are many of exposing the patient to the air, that the beard was seldom or never allowed to be shaved : and I have known a physician visit a sick soldier in the hospital daily for two months, without ever thinking of ordering his hands and face to be washed, or of even suggesting a change of linen.

‘ To sum up the whole, they had not the smallest idea of that active and decided practice by which acute diseases are often arrested in their progress at the beginning, and by which, in the military service, the soldier is at once restored to health and his duty. The use of calomel, of antimony, and of the stronger purgatives, and, in short, of every active remedy whatever, was little known, and the patient was often left, without any real assistance from medicine, to take his chance in the crowded wards of the hospital, while the disease ran its course.’

This picture is not, however, to be applied to all the medical men engaged in private practice in Portugal, among whom are several scientific individuals : but they had in former years no encouragement to enter the army. Neither is there an absolute want of talents in Portugal ; and the condition of the hospitals in Coimbra, under the direction of Dr. Caldas, is said to deserve as favourable a report as any institution of the kind in more advanced states.

Nothing can be more imperfect than the state of Portuguese agriculture. The farmers follow the same undeviating annual course, and appear to be ignorant of even the most common methods of husbandry in other countries. Their plough is a machine made by the hatchet, consisting of three pieces of wood ; and to mend the matter, this curious engine is sometimes encumbered by two heavy wheels. The same land is tilled year after year, and appropriated regularly to the same crop ; and Dr. H. is of opinion that not one tenth of the arable land is in a state of tillage. Instead of threshing the corn, it is trodden out by the feet of oxen, in the manner of the Jews two thousand years ago ; for which purpose, a circular piece of ground is chosen in a particular part of the farm, which, after having been somewhat excavated, receives a kind of flooring, either of stone or compost. The culture of the vines needs form little or no impediment to the extension of that of corn. Hills or mountains are generally preferred for the former, and are exactly the spots on which nothing else would succeed so well. The land may be ploughed among the olive plantations, and even among the vines, without injury to either.—Under such a system, we must not be surprized that
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the population of Portugal, fertile as she is, falls below three millions; nor should we look for the cause of diminution in the casualties of war, when we find such miserable tyranny practised in the interior administration.

‘ I cannot pass over in silence the horrid abuses which were committed by the officers of the recruiting service, in raising the necessary levies in 1809. The interests of the state, the feelings or justice of individuals, were equally neglected by many of these monsters; and revenge or personal gain appeared to be the only principle by which they were guided. Those only who could bribe highest were permitted to escape from being soldiers, while the poor wretches who could not bribe, however unfit or incapable of becoming soldiers, were hunted from place to place, or kept shut up in prisons, until they were worn out, or fell a sacrifice to the pestilence, which their being shut up in loathsome and damp dungeons was sure to generate. I have known men quite lame and decrepid, actually marched for more than 300 miles to the general depôt, at an immense expence to the nation; while others, in the last stage of disease, have only arrived to be relieved from their oppression and their miseries by death. I scarcely exaggerate when I say, that 100,000 individuals have been lost to the country during the present war, through the wilful neglect and mismanagement of the Captain-majors and their hirelings. But it certainly affords some consolation to those who have survived that age of horror and corruption, to know, that the vigilance of the present government, and of the Commander-in-chief, has brought the greater part of these villains to condign punishment.’

With the exception of the province of Alentejo, the country of Portugal is very healthy; and it appeared by the late table of population that 252 individuals were living who were above 100 years of age. The Portuguese also are not so blindly superstitious as their neighbours in Spain. In former days, their commercial intercourse with the world was considerable, and at present their continued intimacy with the British has had the effect of exciting a wonderful attachment to our countrymen.

Literature, like agriculture, is at a low ebb in Portugal; although, since the time of the Marquis of Pombal, considerable tokens of improvement have appeared. Formerly, an author was under the necessity of submitting his work to a number of clerical tribunals: but now the only jurisdiction of this nature is exercised by a committee of the privy council. Politics are forbidden ground: but as to philosophy, natural history, chemistry, and rural economy, the road is perfectly open, and a kind of direct encouragement is afforded by government. Various translations into Portuguese have been executed at the expence of the state; and young men have been sent abroad for education at celebrated universities. As yet, the Portuguese have only two news-papers; one published daily,

and the other three times in a week : but they have ventured to issue a critical journal, under the title of the Coimbra Review. The paper manufactured in Portugal being very coarse, a considerable import of this article takes place from England and Holland. The Prince-regent is a declared patron of literature, and has caused a considerable number of books to be published in Brazil. The University of Coimbra holds the first rank among literary establishments, and traces its origin as far back as the end of the 13th century. Philosophy, divinity, law, mathematics, and medicine, are all taught at this seminary. The Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon was instituted during the present reign, and is said to have effected much for the advancement of learning. The college of the nobles was founded in 1761, and was accounted a very good institution until the war had the effect of disorganizing it. Teachers are maintained at the public expence in different parts of the kingdom ; so that, as a German traveller observed, " there is no want of means ; the defect is in the choice of them, the requisite taste for knowledge not having as yet been discovered or imparted."

With regard to the merits of the present volume, we have pleasure in saying that it is a considerable improvement on its predecessor. Some things might have been omitted, and on various occasions the language should have been more guarded and qualified : but, on the whole, the information conveyed is of importance, and possesses the appearance of authenticity.

ART. IV. *Elements of Chemical Philosophy.* By Sir Humphry Davy, LL.D. Sec. R. S., &c. &c. Part I. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 511. and 9 Plates. 18s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1812.

THE brilliant career of discovery, which has been some time pursued by Sir Humphry Davy, has contributed to raise him to the highest rank among modern experimentalists. The appearance of this volume therefore, excited in us the highest expectations of interest and instruction : since we presumed that the same genius, which had so successfully explored new regions of science, would be well acquainted with the paths that had been entered by others ; and that we should meet with a correct outline of chemical facts, and a just appreciation of chemical theory. There are, however, some circumstances which prevent a great discoverer in any science from being always its most successful historian. We may not expect that any individual, however enlarged his understanding, and however extensive his capacity, can be so entirely divested of personal feelings as to look on the improvements which he has himself made

in science without some undue partiality; and with respect to opinions and hypotheses the remark applies with ten-fold force. A question of fact may possibly be brought to a decisive issue, but this is a rare termination of a question of theory: in proportion to the difficulty of proving an hypothesis, so is often the attachment of the framer of it; and the more powerful are the arguments adduced against it, the more ingenuity is lavished in repelling the objections. The very circumstances, therefore, which have attached so much celebrity to the name of the present author, may prove to be causes of imperfection in his works; so difficult is it to obtain perfection in any human undertaking.

After a peculiar dedication to Lady Davy, and an advertisement defending the employment of Sir Humphry's new nomenclature, and giving a short intimation of the method which he proposes to pursue in the arrangement of his book, 60 pages are allotted to an introductory chapter, which consists of a sketch of the history of chemistry. Through this it is unnecessary for us minutely to follow the author: but it is well written and interesting; and we think that it possesses the merit of very correctly assigning to each successive experimentalist the share of merit which is justly due to him. As a specimen of Sir H.'s manner of treating this part of his subject, we shall present our readers with his characters of the four great contemporaries, Black, Cavendish, Priestley, and Scheele:

‘ Their merits are distinct, peculiar, and of the most exalted kind. Black made a smaller number of original experiments than either of the other philosophers; but being the first labourer in this new department of the science, he had greater difficulties to overcome. His methods are distinguished for their simplicity, his reasonings are admirable for their precision; and his modest, clear, and unaffected manner, is well calculated to impress upon the mind a conviction of the accuracy of his processes, and the truth and candour of his narrations.

‘ Cavendish was possessed of a minute knowledge of most of the departments of Natural Philosophy: he carried into his chemical researches a delicacy and precision which have never been exceeded: possessing depth and extent of mathematical knowledge, he reasoned with a caution of a geometer upon the results of his experiments: and it may be said of him, what, perhaps, can scarcely be said of any other person, that whatever he accomplished was perfect at the moment of its production. His processes were all of a finished nature; executed by the hand of a master, they required no correction; the accuracy and beauty of his earliest labours, even, have remained unimpaired amidst the progress of discovery, and their merits have been illustrated by discussion, and exalted by time.

‘ Dr. Priestley began his career of discovery without any general knowledge of chemistry, and with a very imperfect apparatus. His

characteristics were ardent zeal and the most unwearied industry. He exposed all the substances he could procure to chemical agencies, and brought forward his results as they occurred, without attempting logical method or scientific arrangement. His hypotheses were usually founded upon a few loose analogies; but he changed them with facility; and being framed without much effort, they were relinquished with little regret. He possessed in the highest degree ingenuousness and the love of truth. His manipulations, though never very refined, were always simple, and often ingenious. Chemistry owes to him some of her most important instruments of research, and many of her most useful combinations; and no single person ever discovered so many new and curious substances.

' Scheele possessed in the highest degree the faculty of invention; all his labours were instituted with an object in view, and after happy or bold analogies. He owed little to fortune or to accidental circumstances; born in an obscure situation, occupied in the duties of an irksome employment, nothing could damp the ardour of his mind or chill the fire of his genius: with very small means he accomplished very great things. No difficulties deterred him from submitting his ideas to the test of experiment. Occasionally misled in his views, in consequence of the imperfection of his apparatus, or the infant state of the inquiry, he never hesitated to give up his opinions the moment they were contradicted by facts. He was eminently endowed with that candour which is characteristic of great minds, and which induces them to rejoice as well in the detection of their own errors, as in the discovery of truth. His papers are admirable models of the manner in which experimental research ought to be pursued; and they contain details on some of the most important and brilliant phenomena of chemical philosophy.'

The connection which exists between chemistry and electricity, and the great addition which has been made to our knowledge of the former science by the application of electricity to the decomposition of bodies, have within the last few years effected a very important revolution in the science:

' By researches, the commencement of which is owing to Messrs. Nicholson and Carlisle, in 1800, which were continued by Cruickshank, Henry, Wollaston, Children, Pepys, Pfaff, Desormes, Biot, Thenard, Hissinger, and Berzelius, it appeared that various compound bodies were capable of decomposition by electricity; and experiments, which it was my good fortune to institute, proved that several substances which had never been separated into any other forms of matter in the common processes of experiment, were susceptible of analysis by electrical powers: in consequence of these circumstances, the fixed alkalies and several of the earths have been shewn to be metals combined with oxygen; various new agents have been furnished to chemistry, and many novel results obtained by their application, which at the same time that they have strengthened some of the doctrines of the school of Lavoisier, have overturned others, and
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have proved that the generalizations of the Antiphlogistic philosophers were far from having anticipated the whole progress of discovery.'

These principles are developed at large in the course of the work. Another most important principle in chemical theory, which appears to be daily gaining converts, is the doctrine of definite proportions; which the author thus notices in his introduction:

'Experiments made by Richter and Morveau had shewn that, when there is an interchange of elements between two neutral salts, there is never an excess of acid or basis; and the same law seems to apply generally to double decompositions. When one body combines with another in more than one proportion, the second proportion appears to be some multiple or divisor of the first; and this circumstance, observed and ingeniously illustrated by Mr. Dalton, led him to adopt the atomic hypothesis of chemical changes, which had been ably defended by Mr. Higgins in 1789, namely, that the chemical elements consist of certain indestructible particles which unite one and one, or one and two, or in some definite numbers.

'Whether matter consists of indivisible corpuscles, or physical points endowed with attraction and repulsion, still the same conclusions may be formed concerning the powers by which they act, and the quantities in which they combine; and the powers seem capable of being measured by their electrical relations, and the quantities on which they act of being expressed by numbers.'

The present volume contains only the first part of the projected work, and treats of 'The Laws of Chemical Changes, and of Undecompounded Bodies and their Primary Combinations.' This first part is formed into seven divisions, with the following titles:

'On the powers and properties of matter, and the general laws of chemical changes.—Of radiant or ethereal matter.—Of empyreal undecompounded substances, or undecompounded substances that support combustion, and their combination with each other. Of undecompounded inflammable or acidiferous substances not metallic, and their binary combinations with oxygene and chlorine, or with each other.—Of metals; their primary combinations with other undecompounded bodies, and with each other.—Of some substances, the nature of which is not yet certainly known.—On the analogies between the undecompounded substances; speculations respecting their nature; on the modes of separating them, and on the relations of their compounds.'

The first impression, which is made on our minds by a consideration of the above arrangement, is that in many of its parts it is not only hypothetical, but is founded on the particular views of the author, and such as have been much controverted by his con-

temporaries. A second remark is that some of his fundamental principles are rather fanciful than scientific. To the former character we may refer his decided assumption of the elementary nature of oxy muriatic acid, and to the latter the formation of the class of etherial substances. On the first of these points, Sir H. Davy's adoption of a doctrine which rests on experiments that may be explained equally well on the former hypothesis, and in which the analogies are perhaps equally striking on either side, is not philosophical. His opinion respecting oxy muriatic acid is very ingenious, and perhaps correct, but it is certainly not yet demonstrated, and therefore should not have been taken as the basis of a general doctrine. It is impossible to proceed a step in science without making use of terms that are, to a certain degree, theoretical: but to employ such as are at present the subject of controversy, and even to make them the basis of a nomenclature, can only tend to impede the progress of science, and lead us to suppose that we have acquired knowledge when in fact we have only learnt a new language.

We shall now, however, examine some parts of the volume with a little more minuteness. The second section of the first division is on the forms of matter, which are extended to four, adding to the three usually enumerated, (solids, fluids, and gases,) etherial substances; and these are thus described:

' Besides these forms of matter which are easily submitted to experiment, and the parts of which may be considered as in a state of apparent rest, there are other forms of matter which are known to us only in their states of motion when acting upon our organs of sense, or upon other matter, and which are not susceptible of being confined. They have been sometimes called *etherial substances*, which appears a more unexceptionable name than *imponderable substances*. It cannot be doubted that there is matter in motion in space, between the sun and the stars and our globe, though it is a subject of discussion whether successions of particles be emitted from these heavenly bodies, or motions communicated by them, to particles in their vicinity, and transmitted by successive impulses to other particles. *Etherial* matter differs either in its nature or in its affections by motion; for it produces different effects; for instance, as radiant heat, and as different kinds of light.'

Considering *names* as of great importance, on account of their influence on our ideas, we must object to the term here adopted, which brings into view a kind of hypothetical existence; whereas we cannot imagine that a single objection lies against the word *imponderable*, which is an expression of a fact, and that fact descriptive of a very peculiar and characteristic property. This paragraph also lies under the serious objection to which we have referred above; since it involves by implication the truth of a very dubious hypothesis. It supposes that all
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the effects, produced by what is styled etherial matter, depend on one and the same substance, differently modified by motion, and thus in different cases producing phænomena which appear essentially to vary from each other. We do not say that this may not be the case : but it certainly is not one of those acknowledged facts which should be selected as the foundation of a scientific arrangement.

Sir Humphrey next remarks that the changes of the forms of matter depend on the influence of various active powers, the principal of which are gravitation, cohesion, calorific repulsion, chemical attraction, and electrical attraction ; and a short section is allotted to the consideration of the laws of each of these powers. This part is, in general, executed with elegance and precision ; yet here we occasionally observe some traces of that spirit of assumption which has already been the subject of our animadversion. To the cause of heat, Sir H. Davy gives the name of calorific repulsion ; and he arranges its properties under fourteen heads. Some of the most important of these are the laws of the communication of heat, of the expansion produced by heat, the exceptions to the general principle, or the contraction by heat, the formation of thermometers as measures of heat, the equalization of temperature, the transmission of heat, the repulsive force of heat, the doctrine of permanent elastic fluids, that of latent heat, the change of temperature in consequence of a change in the form of bodies, the alteration of temperature produced by chemical changes, and the hypothesis respecting the cause of the phænomena of heat. The remarks on this last head may be selected to exemplify the author's manner of treating a subject which has given rise to much controversy.

‘ As attempts have been made to account for attraction, by the supposition of the existence of a peculiar matter, so *calorific repulsion* has been accounted for by supposing a subtile fluid, capable of combining with bodies, and of separating their parts from each other, which has been named the *matter of heat*, or *caloric*.

‘ Many of the phænomena admit of a happy explanation on this idea, such as the cold produced during the conversion of solids into fluids or gasses, and the increase of temperature connected with the condensation of gasses and fluids ; but there are other facts which are not so easily reconciled to the opinion : such are the production of heat by friction and percussion ; and some of the chemical changes which have been just referred to. When the temperature of bodies is raised by friction, there seems to be no diminution of their capacities, using the word in its common sense ; and in many chemical changes connected with an increase of temperature, there appears to be likewise an increase of capacity. A piece of iron made red hot by hammering cannot be strongly heated a second time by the same means,

means, unless it has been previously introduced into a fire. This fact has been explained by supposing that the fluid of heat has been pressed out of it, by the percussion, which is recovered in the fire ; but this is a very rude mechanical idea: the arrangements of its parts are altered by hammering in this way, and it is rendered brittle. By a moderate degree of friction, as it would appear from Rumford's experiments, the same piece of metal may be kept hot for any length of time ; so that if heat be pressed out, the quantity must be inexhaustible. When any body is cooled it occupies a smaller volume than before : it is evident, therefore, that its parts must have approached towards each other : when the body is expanded by heat, it is equally evident that its parts must have separated from each other. The immediate cause of the phenomena of heat then is motion, and the laws of its communication are precisely the same as the laws of the communication of motion.'

The question discussed in this paragraph is involved in much uncertainty, and we do not pretend to have been able completely to make up our own minds respecting it : but we confess that the observations of Sir H. Davy appear to us to give a very unsatisfactory account of the state of the controversy. Because a body is expanded by heat and contracted by cold, it is concluded that the immediate cause of the phenomena of heat is motion : but, in forming this conclusion, the very point is taken for granted which is the main subject of the dispute, and the conclusion seems to have been made by attending to one circumstance only, excluding all the rest which equally bear on it. Whether the farther developement of the author's hypothesis on the subject of heat will prove satisfactory to our chemical readers, we know not :

' It seems possible to account for all the phenomena of heat, if it be supposed that in solids the particles are in a constant state of vibratory motion, the particles of the hottest bodies moving with the greatest velocity and through the greatest space ; that in fluids and elastic fluids, besides the vibratory motion, which must be conceived greatest in the last, the particles have a motion round their own axes, with different velocities, the particles of elastic fluids moving with the greatest quickness ; and that in ethereal substances the particles move round their own axes, and separate from each other, penetrating in right lines through space. Temperature may be conceived to depend upon the velocities of the vibrations ; increase of capacity on the motion being performed in greater space ; and the diminution of temperature during the conversion of solids into fluids or gasses, may be explained on the idea of the loss of vibratory motion, in consequence of the revolution of particles round their axes, at the moment when the body becomes fluid or æriform, or from the loss of rapidity of vibration in consequence of the motion of the particles through greater space.'

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Such completely whimsical speculations, as those which are contained in the preceding paragraph, ought not to have been allowed a place in the elements of the *philosophy* of chemistry.

The section on chemical attraction, and on the laws of combination and decomposition, is interesting, and generally judicious. Some of the illustrations brought forwards are peculiarly neat and appropriate; as for example the following simple train of reasoning to prove that bodies combine in definite proportions:

‘ If one part of pure oxygene gas, and two parts of pure hydrogen gas, in volume, be mixed together, in a glass tube, over mercury, furnished with wires for passing the electrical spark through it, and they be inflamed by the electrical spark; the gaseous matter will disappear, and water will result. If two parts of oxygene be employed, and two of hydrogen, one part of oxygene will remain; in whatever proportions they are mixed together, it is found, that one of oxygene always condenses two of hydrogen. It is evident then, that oxygene and hydrogen, combine only in definite proportions, and that the water resulting is always the same in its constitution.’

The same remark may be made with respect to the relation of the experiment made by Dr. Wollaston, to prove that gaseous bodies always unite in proportions which bear a certain ratio to each other:

‘ In cases where an alkaline substance combines with more than one proportion of acid, the same circumstances seem to occur as in the combinations of gaseous bodies. The proportion is either a multiple or a divisor of the first; this is shewn by a very simple experiment, first made by Dr. Wollaston: let a given weight of the salt called carbonate of potassa, be thrown into a tube over mercury, and diluted sulphuric acid sufficient to cover it be introduced into the tube, a certain volume of carbonic acid gas will be disengaged; let an equal weight of the salt be heated to redness, when it becomes a subcarbonate, and let this subcarbonate be treated in the same way, it will be found to give off exactly half as much carbonic acid gas.’

Of the section on ‘ electrical attraction and repulsion, and their relation to chemical changes,’ we may say that it is very amusing, and presents a very spirited sketch of the interesting discoveries in which the author has borne so important a part. Most of the facts announced in this section were previously known, but they are here clearly expressed, and well arranged; and they constitute that kind of narrative which is precisely adapted to the nature of the work. We find, however, some observations which we believe are for the first time announced to the public, such as the following remarks on the ratio in which
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the power of the Galvanic battery is augmented by an increase in the number and surface of its plates :

‘ MM. Gay Lussac and Thénard have announced, that the power of chemical decomposition increases only as the cube root of the number of plates ; but their experiments were made with parts of piles of a construction very unfavourable for gaining accurate results ; and in various trials made with great care in the laboratory of the Royal Institution, the results were altogether different. The batteries employed were parts of the great combination, carefully insulated, and similarly charged ; arcs of zinc and silver presenting equal surfaces, and arranged in equal glasses filled with the same kind of fluid, were likewise used ; and the tubes for collecting the gasses were precisely similar, and filled with the same solution of potassa. In these experiments ten pairs of plates produced fifteen measures of gas : twenty pairs in the same time produced forty-nine ; again, ten pairs produced five measures ; forty pairs in the same time produced seventy-eight measures. In experiments made with arcs, and which appeared unexceptionable, four pairs produced one measure of gas ; twelve pairs in the same time produced nine and $\frac{7}{8}$ of gas ; six pairs produced one measure of gas ; thirty pairs, under like circumstances, produced 24.5 measures ; and these quantities are nearly as the squares of the numbers.’

We may quote the succeeding observations on the connection between chemical affinity and electricity, as tending to illustrate the author's peculiar opinions on this subject, and to free them from some degree of misconception which has prevailed respecting them :

‘ This view of the possibility of the dependence of electrical and chemical action upon the same cause, has been much misrepresented. It has been supposed that the idea was entertained, that chemical changes were occasioned by electrical changes ; than which nothing is further from the hypothesis, which I have ventured to advance. They are conceived, on the contrary, to be *distinct* phenomena ; but produced by the *same power*, acting in one case on masses, in the other case on particles. The hypothesis has been attempted to be controverted by experiments which are far from satisfactory, and some of which have no connection with it. It has been said that acids rendered positive by the common machine, will still combine with alkalis, and that other contradictory results may be obtained ; but a non-conducting acid, though brought in contact with a positive surface, electrified by the common machine, is not rendered positive throughout ; but gains a polar electricity, which extends only to a certain depth into the crystals, and the exterior surface, if electrical at all, is negative : and if a wire, positively electrified by the common machine, be introduced into an acid solution, this solution, if at all affected, when made to act upon another solution, will be negative at its point of action ; that is, it will be positive near the wire, but will be in the opposite state with regard to another surface. And common electricity is too small in quantity, in its usual form
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of application, to influence chemical changes; for it requires a very strong machine acting upon a very small surface, to produce any sensible polar decompositions of bodies.'

The 3d, 4th, and 5th divisions are principally narrative and descriptive; consisting of accounts of different chemical substances, the history of their discovery, the method of obtaining them in a state of perfect purity, and a detail of their properties. In this part, we meet with much to admire, but also with some inaccuracies; and we think that we detect many omissions. The author seems indeed to have bestowed less of his powers on these portions of his volume, than on those in which he announces his general views and hypotheses. Such of our readers as have minutely attended to the acute controversy which has been carried on by Mr. Murray of Edinburgh, in favor of the compound nature of oxymuriatic acid, will regret that Sir H. Davy has permitted himself to speak in so confident a manner on this subject:

'Lavoisier and Berthollet asserted that it was a compound of muriatic acid gas, and oxygene. This idea is now universally given up; but some chemists in France and Scotland conceive that it is a compound of oxygene, and an unknown body, which they call dry muriatic acid. The weight of chlorine, its absorbability by water, its colour, and the analogy of some of its combinations to bodies known to contain oxygene, are arguments in favour of its being a compound; and it is possible that oxygene may be one of its elements, or that oxygene and chlorine are similarly constituted. I have made a number of experiments with the hopes of detecting oxygene in it, but without success; none of its compounds with inflammable bodies or metals will afford this principle; charcoal intensely ignited in it undergoes no change, nor is it altered by the strongest powers of electricity. Should oxygene ever be procured from it, some other form of matter, possibly a new one, will at the same time be discovered, as entering into its constitution; and till it is decomposed, it must be regarded, according to the just logic of chemistry, as an elementary substance.'

The ensuing observations may be regarded as affording a candid statement of the respective claims of Sir H. Davy and MM. Gay-Lussac and Thénard, to the discovery of the radical of the boracic acid:

'I first procured boron in October, 1807, by the electrical decomposition of boracic acid, and by potassium, in March, 1808; but not in sufficient quantities to examine its properties, or to ascertain its nature. MM. Gay Lussac and Thénard, in June, 1808, made the experiment of heating boracic acid and potassium together, but they did not describe the properties of boron till the middle of November; and in the beginning of the same month I had procured sufficient quantities of the substance to ascertain its chemical relations,

MM. Gay

MM. Gay Lussac and Thénard, I believe, recomposed the boracic acid before me, and our experiments were independent of each other; but in my first paper on potassium and sodium read at the Royal Society, in November, 1807, at a time when the French chemists had no idea of the existence of the alkaline metals, I pointed out the probable application of these bodies to the decomposition of the acids not decomposed.

Speculations respecting the nature of substances occupy almost the whole of the 7th division; and although it may be considered as both amusing and ingenious, it is perhaps the least really valuable part of the volume. Some of the *analogies* that are pointed out are certainly just, and sufficiently obvious; while others appear to be far-fetched and fanciful. Whether the following paragraph be liable to this censure, our readers must determine:

‘Chlorine and oxygene agree in many of their characters; but the weight of chlorine, its colour, its absorbability by water, are all in favour of its being a compound. The number representing chlorine is so high that it may include four proportions of oxygene; and if this body be supposed to consist of oxygene united to an unknown basis, the analogy of the combinations of chlorine, both to the oxides and the salts, might be easily explained. The evidences in favour of such an idea of the constitution of chlorine are, however, much inferior to those which render it probable that the inflammable solids contain hydrogen; and this speculation on the composition of chlorine must not be confounded with the notion that chlorine is a compound of oxygene and muriatic acid free from water; for supposing a basis to exist in chlorine, it does not follow that it will be acid in its nature. The characteristic acid belonging to the combinations of chlorine is formed by the union of that body with hydrogen; and sulphur likewise forms an acid by combining with hydrogen.’

Among the principal subjects treated, are the analogies of undecomposed substances, the analogies and chemical relations of the primary compounds, the relative attractions of the undecomposed substances, and the methods of separating them from each other.

Our general opinion respecting this publication is that it exhibits evident traces both of ability and of haste; that it is a performance which few men could have executed, yet that its author might have made it considerably more perfect. Sir H. Davy's reputation as an experimentalist and a discoverer stands so high, that, even although he should fail in his speculative doctrines, he must still be regarded as among the very first chemists of the age.

We shall pay our compliments in a future article to Sir H. D.'s *Lectures on Agricultural Chemistry*, which have recently appeared.

ART. V. *The East India Vade-mecum*; or complete Guide to Gentlemen intended for the Civil, Military, or Naval Service of the Hon. East India Company. By Captain Thomas Williamson, Author of the "Wild Sports of the East." 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 1026. 1l. 8s. Boards. Black, Parry, and Co.

THE public already know Captain Williamson as an author who is capable of writing a lively book, but who is disposed to lay very little stress on that cardinal virtue in composition, methodical distribution of his matter. The impression created by his former works * will receive an ample confirmation, in both those respects, from the present. These volumes have been composed for the instruction of the numerous youths, who annually leave our shores to pass a critical period of life at a distance from the superintending eye of parents; and who are not only deprived of the benefit of wholesome counsels, but are introduced in some degree into a new world, and to new temptations. Many old residents in India must have made the painful reflection that the labours of their early years were in a great measure lost, from ignorance of the proper method of directing their pursuits, and must have vowed in secret never to expose their young relatives to the mischief of similar inexperience.

As a contribution to such an object, imperfect indeed, but useful as far as it goes, Captain Williamson's publication has a claim to the attention of persons who are connected with our eastern dominions. It is on a different plan from that of Lord Valentia, or indeed of any book of travels; since the author enters very little into geographical delineations, and confines himself to a description of the disposition and customs of the inhabitants. These he treats with all the familiarity of a person who has been for twenty years resident in the country; and much will be found in his pages that is new to those who have not personally visited "Aurora of the Ganges." It is to be remarked, however, that his admonitions are more applicable to gentlemen in his own profession, than to persons in the civil service; while with trade, and those who follow it, the acquaintance of the author appears to have been inconsiderable: but our principal complaint relates to Captain Williamson's former trespass,—a want of order. Here are no running titles, no divisions into sections or chapters, and scarcely even a notice when one subject is dropped and another introduced. Fortunately, however, whether we owe it to the author or the publisher, a table of contents is prefixed to each volume, and

* See M. Rev. N. S. Vol. liv. p. 303. and Vol. lxi. p. 318.

facilitates access to that which would otherwise be an indiscriminate mass.

A part of the first volume is occupied with an account of the voyage out, of St. Helena, the Cape, &c. ; all of which we shall pass over as of subordinate interest to our readers, and introduce them without farther preamble to Captain W.'s observations in the body of the work. As one of the most instructive portions relates to the conduct of young men on their first arrival in India, we shall *amalgamate* a number of detached remarks on this subject :

' Persons arriving from Europe rarely have any but British coins; in the disbursing of which many impositions will be practised. The best mode is to tender the whole, without delay, to some of the English agency houses, who will readily pay their full value. — The infinite variety, both of gold mohurs, and of rupees, renders it highly necessary for the young adventurer to be careful, lest he should receive such as are of inferior value ; a trick extremely common among servants, as well as *shroffs*, *sircars*, and shop-keepers ; all of whom will exercise their cunning to obtain the smallest advantage.' —

' All goods being landed under the inspection of custom-house officers, the passenger will have little opportunity of interfering in regard to his baggage, or merchandize. Nor should I recommend his attempting, personally, to transact any business before he may have delivered his letters of credit, or of introduction. — Here I deem it an indispensable duty, to warn the young adventurer not to dissipate his money, ruin his health, and injure his reputation, by frequenting taverns. —

' The taverns in India are upon a very different plan from those at home : they are either of the first rate, at which public dinners are occasionally given ; or they are of that mean description which receive all who have a rupee to spend, under the determination of extracting that rupee, in some shape or other. The former class is very confined in numbers, but the latter are abundantly numerous, and may be readily distinguished by the promiscuous company, the shabbiness of the treatment, and the excess of imposition practised, especially on novices.' —

' The ordinary mode in which an European is attacked, on his first arrival at Calcutta, is by the tender of a bearer, carrying a large umbrella, to shelter master from the sun, or rain. There is something about a stranger, in that quarter, which instantly announces him to all the predatory tribe, who wait at the wharfs in expectation of living booty : but, if such were not the case, his total ignorance of the language would be sufficient to determine their conduct. The bearer, who is in league with that numerous horde of miscreants, called *sircars*, abounding, not only at Calcutta, but throughout the lower provinces, speedily conveys the hint to his associates, when a smooth-faced chap, who speaks English well enough to be understood, and who comprehends more than he will acknowledge, advances, and making a respectful obeisance, called a *salaam*, by bending his head
downwards

downwards, and placing the palm of his right hand to his forehead, makes an offer of his services to the stray Briton. — He leads him to some paltry tavern, in which he either is interested, or from whose keeper he receives a *douceur* for introducing the guest. —

‘The tavern-keeper, under the plausible pretext of aiding towards the completion of the youth’s wishes, never fails to enquire whether the gentleman has any friends in town? or even in the country? If affirmatively answered, ‘mine host’ feels himself tolerably secure of his money: but will probably assert, that the friend in town is out of the way, and will not be back for some days: should the gentleman be totally destitute of friends, then comes the rich harvest. Imposition following imposition, swell the bill; which, if appearances warrant forbearance, is kept back as long as possible, under the pleasing assurance of perfect confidence.’ —

‘Such as appertain to the civil service, being always strongly recommended, and often finding many old acquaintances of their families on the spot, require but little advice; nor does the cadet stand much in need of instruction, as to the manner in which he should provide himself with a home. All he has to do, is to wait upon the town-major, at his office in Fort-William, when he will receive the necessary order for his admission into the Cadet Corps, at Baraset, about sixteen miles from Calcutta. He who has not these advantages, must do the best his circumstances may afford. The first point must necessarily be to get under cover. This will not be found so easy, as those who have never quitted England may suppose. It will be after much research, that a small house will be had, and then only the bare walls; for no such thing is known in India as a furnished house to be let; and lodgings are, if possible, still more out of the question. Fortunately, there are, among the European shop-keepers in Calcutta, some most respectable characters; men distinguished for their urbanity, philanthropy, and generosity. Application should be instantly made to one of these firms, for aid, and advice. The consequences will be, that, in a few hours, some small tenement will be obtained, either on hire, or granted as a temporary accommodation, and the whole of the articles really necessary will be provided, at some one or other of the auctions which daily take place within the central parts of the town.

‘The appointment of proper servants will be a matter of importance; but, under the auspices of any old resident, by no means difficult. One servant who can speak English, or at least, an underling *Sircar*, deputed from the warehouse, will prove a very agreeable resource, on all occasions of difficulty; but I cannot too forcibly inculcate the good policy, or rather the absolute necessity, of immediately studying the language: till that is acquired, to such an extent as may remove the necessity for an interpreter on ordinary occasions, no person can be deemed independent; far less, capable of acting in any civil, military, or commercial capacity, with effect.’ —

‘As to a horse, it is not every body who keeps one, nor is it peremptorily needful; but, both as a convenience, and as tending to health, I recommend that a cheap, safe, and quiet poney be provided: numbers are sold every week, at all prices. — The necessary

stock of wines, spirits, wax-candles, sauces, sugar-candy, tea, coffee, saltpetre, and a number of lesser items, would require full 600 rupees more; under the supposition that a year's stock were laid in. As that rate we may compute 200l. to be necessary to establish a gentleman at his residence, supposing it to be fixed. Travelling makes quite another concern, and will be found to encrease the disbursements considerably.—

‘ Every free-mariner, free-merchant, &c. proceeding to India on speculation, must be provided with at least six hundred pounds to answer the demands of his outset, including house rent, which cannot well be taken at less than 150l. per annum; his servants will amount to about as much more; and his table expences, pocket-money, &c., on the most moderate scale, will demand one hundred, after laying in his stock of wines, tea, &c.—

‘ I say thus much with the view to correct an opinion known to prevail, that it is easy to get into society in India; and that then a gentleman may put his hands in his pockets, while his friends forward him rapidly. Such, assuredly, was the case in days of yore; but, within the last twenty years, there have been so many retrenchments in all the public offices, so many young men have gone to India with the hope of being engaged in merchants' houses, and so many have failed in those prospects, that I should omit a very important branch of that duty I have imposed on myself, in offering my advice to those who are about to proceed to India, were I to encourage the idea of such supposed facilities being realized. — Were I to advise any young friend, about to proceed to India, as to the manner in which he should pass his first year, it would be nearly in the following terms: ‘ Rise at daybreak, and ride gently for one hour in the hot season, and two hours in the cold season; make a moderate breakfast, avoiding melted butter, salt meats, salt fish, sweetmeats, &c., good tea or coffee being assuredly the most wholesome; study the language for an hour; attend some office gratuitously, with the view to become acquainted with the accounts, price-currents, markets, provisions, commodities, &c.; about two o'clock retire to rest; about an hour before sun-set bathe, by means of three or four large pots of water poured over the head; put on clean linen, and dine moderately upon plain viands, taking care never to exceed four or five glasses of the best Madeira; proceed for two hours with studying the language, and, after taking a cup or two of tea, or of coffee, or a crust of bread and a glass of Madeira, go to bed, avoiding to sleep in a strong current of air.’

Persons who have never been in India are with difficulty persuaded of the necessity that even unmarried men should keep a considerable number of servants: yet this necessity is founded on a cause which is not likely to be altered, or even materially modified, for ages, — we mean, the religious prejudices of the Hindoos. The strictness, with which their respective casts are confined to particular kinds of occupation, would expose the individual who should venture to deviate from the prescribed limit, and charge himself with more extended duty, to the severe animadversion of the priesthood.

The climate, likewise, by enfeebling the exertions of the European, obliges him to retain servants of a description which a man in health in this country would deem superfluous. Numerous, however, as servants are in India, the expence of them is limited by several considerations. Their wages, varying according to their station, from 15s. to 30s. and 40s. a-month, are in lieu of food, clothing, and lodging; and from the peculiarity of their religious tenets, little danger exists of their purloining or even touching the provisions which are served up to a Christian. European servants, whether male or female, are found by no means desirable appendages in India. Men-servants must have a house, and several Indian attendants, with various indulgences of which, in this northern region, we have no idea; and after having saved a little money, or made a few friends, especially by farriery, they will set up in some line of business for their own account, and leave their masters: who are seldom sorry to part with them. Maid-servants are still more expeditious in quitting service, whatever contracts they may have formed; so that the best plan for ladies going to India is to look out for a female attendant in some native of that country, who wishes to return home. The native servants are divided into two classes, the menial attendants, and an upper class comprising the money-agent, linguist, house-steward, clerk, &c. Of these the most remarkable is the *Sircar*:

‘The *Sircar* is a genius whose whole study is to handle money, whether receivable or payable; and who contrives either to confuse accounts, when they are adverse to his view; or to render them most expressively intelligible, when such should suit his purpose. These rogues are pretty nearly the same as the Madras *debasches*: I believe all, who have experienced the kind offices of either, will readily confess that no completer knaves are to be found in any part of the world. And this under the most sedulous appearance both to please, and to serve, those whom they are about to plunder.—

‘On account of the immense variety of coins current in India, it is customary, whenever any large sum is to be received, to employ an examiner, called a *Podar*; who, having confined his pursuits to the acquirement of a most accurate knowledge of their several values, at once decides upon the correctness of a payment. The precision, quickness, and touch, of these persons, are beyond description. I have been assured that many of them can, even in the dark, distinguish between several kinds of money, whose size and weight bear no great dissimilarity.’—

‘We often admire the dexterity of our money-tellers; but the *podar*, who counts by fours, (*i.e.* *gundabs*;) finishes the detail of a thousand in so short a time, as would cause even our most expert money-tellers to stare with astonishment!—

‘The *Cranny*, or clerk, may be either a native Armenian, a native Portuguese, or a Bengallee: the former are not very common;

the second are more numerous ; but the third are every where to be seen. It really is wonderful how well many of the latter can write, without understanding a word of what is written. They have a steady hand, a keen eye, and an admirable readiness in casting up accounts.'

Of similar habits with the *Sircar*, but of humbler station, is the *Compadore*, or purveyor. The wages of this domestic are small, not exceeding four or five rupees per month: but they form a part only of his emoluments, in a case in which the monthly disbursement passing through his hands amounts to several hundred rupees. In one way or another, he probably contrives to appropriate to himself ten per cent. of that sum ; bearing all the while, in his dress, an appearance of poverty which is calculated to excite commiseration. The time of his activity is as early as the interval from day-light to sun-rise ; after which, in that broiling climate, all the prime articles at market disappear ; and he must not tarry, at least during the hot months, in returning home with his purchases : since such is the rapid progress to putrefaction, that veal killed after midnight has been known to become offensive in the space of ten hours, notwithstanding every precaution was adopted to keep it cool.

We come now to the rest of the second or humbler class of male attendants, few of whom have equal opportunities of depredation with their purveying colleague. These are the *Khedmutgar*, analogous to our footman, of whom ' every gentleman must have one, but the majority keep two or more ;' the *Mosaulchy*, or flambeau-bearer ; the *Hookah-burdar*, or preparer of the pipe ; the *Puckaully*, or Bheesty, who supplies water ; the *Babachy*, or cook ; the *Durzy*, or tailor ; the *Doby*, or washerman ; the *Mobout*, or elephant-driver ; the *Surwan*, or camel-driver ; the *Syce*, or groom, one to each horse, with an under-servant ; the *Maully*, or gardener ; the *Aub-dar*, or water-cooler ; the *Hirkarrak*, or express-messenger, and *Peon*, or running-footman ; the *Daftoree*, or office-keeper ; the *Fraush*, or furniture-keeper ; the *Mater*, or sweeper ; the *Dooreah*, or dog-keeper ; besides boatmen, &c.

It needs excite no surprize that persons who have never been out of Europe should be ignorant of the domestic customs of the inhabitants of Hindoostan, when the majority of those who have resided on the spot are found to know very little about them. The cause of this deficiency of information is their ignorance of the language, and an almost total want of familiar intercourse with the natives. The connection between Europeans and natives is confined to transactions of business and ceremonious exhibitions ; since no Hindoo and very few Mussulmans would consent to eat at the same table with a Christian.

With the native women of any genteel rank, the European has no communication whatever ; such being the force of education, that a lady of Hindoostan, of high parentage, would almost as soon suffer death as exposure to public view. Their seclusion, therefore, from whatever cause it may date its origin in remote ages, is now continued more from the prevalence of hereditary prejudice than from any jealousy on the part of the husband. It is towards strangers that this prohibition of approach is maintained ; the law permitting a woman to be seen not only by her own relations but by those of her nurse, who is considered as standing in the same relationship with the natural parents. The wife generally takes the whole internal management of her household, and piques herself on her knowledge of needle-work and cookery. The husband is in the habit of allowing her a fixed sum ; and the education of the daughters, as well as of the sons when young, is said to be entirely intrusted to the mother. Yet few of these ladies are adepts in the essential accomplishments of reading and writing, not ten in a hundred knowing how to read the Koran. In one point, however, viz. in lessons of chastity, no mothers can be more solicitous in the tuition of their daughters ; and should any of them forget in this respect what was due to the maintenance of family-dignity, immediate death from her parent's hand would not fail to ensue. Though this statement is more particularly applicable to the higher ranks, it may be remarked generally with respect to the middling classes, that the relations of a wife who has been unfaithful are fully as much alive to the dishonour as the husband, and are seldom disposed to hesitate in resorting to a violent mode of punishment.

Though polygamy is permitted by the religion of the Orientalists, it is not usual for a Mussulman in India to have more than one wife : since no parent, actuated by a proper regard for his daughter's happiness, would willingly place her in the degraded situation which a second wife is always considered to hold ; it being understood, in such cases, that the second wife remains subjected to the controul of the first. Neither has the husband the power to act as he pleases with regard to his first wife. He is allowed by law the power of divorce on much slighter grounds than in Europe, but the bride's relations generally take care to fix the separate maintenance-money at an amount beyond the husband's ability to defray. Moreover, general opinion strongly opposes a separation ; and though it is not equally adverse to a double marriage, an occurrence of the latter nature is not found to exist in one instance out of twenty, and not one Mussulman in five hundred has more than two wives.

' In India, native ladies generally rise, or should do so, at day-break ; that they may have time to purify themselves before the rising of the sun, at which time the first prayer is repeated.—After prayers, the important business at the toilette commences, in which two or three hours, at least, are *profitably* spent.—After the toilette, comes the breakfast ; which does not, like ours, consist of fixed articles, but varies agreeably to the taste of the parties, and to the management of the mistress. They never use knives or spoons ; and, indeed, they seem to think that we lose much of the relish of the food by the artificial aids we employ on such occasions.

' After breakfast, and having issued the necessary orders for dinner, the lady of the house, attended by her daughters and slave girls, sits down to needle-work ; an excellence, on which, as well as all kinds of embroidery, they greatly pride themselves. Among the middle ranks, such as can write, often employ themselves in copying the Koran.

' The sound of the *cherky*, or spinning wheel, is always considered indicative of poverty, and is therefore seldom heard in the houses of the great ; but women of a middling class, often spin large quantities of cotton-wool into fine thread, intended to be wove into mulmuls, &c. for their own apparel : the coarser skeans being allotted to their *baundees*, or female slaves.

' Between twelve and one they generally dine, every person washing the face and hands before the company sits down at table, or rather table-cloth ; which is spread on the ground, and around which all the party arrange themselves : except it be among the Bengal Mussulmans, or among such as have adopted the Hindu manners, by whom a wife is not permitted to eat in the presence of her husband. This meal generally consists of boiled rice, or of wheaten cakes, stewed or *curried* vegetables. Curry is made of fowls, kid, and goats' flesh. Beef is seldom sought after, except in cities ; and mutton is by most considered as an inflating, unwholesome food. —

' Immediately after dinner, the parties retire to take their afternoon-nap ; on arising from which the toilette again engages the ladies' attention. Disengaged from it, they walk round their gardens (which are enclosed,) to enjoy the evening air. After sun-set, when the evening prayers are over, the relations and friends visit each other ; and this is the hour in which the husband withdraws himself from general intrusion, and retires to the *zenanab*. Here, surrounded by his wife and children, he enjoys the pleasing converse of the one, and the innocent diversions of the other.'—

' A wife never brings a dowry to her husband, except her plentiful stock may be so considered, such as cloaths, jewels, &c., which her parents send with her, sometimes to so great an extent, as to preclude for years the necessity of any supply from the husband.'—

' Mutual intercourse among female friends and relations is kept up by visits ; for which, however, previous permission from the husbands must be obtained, except when the wife intends a visit to her parents. In such a case, she *intimates* her intention ; and, though he may dissuade, he has not the power to restrain.'—

' In

‘ In the absence of her husband, a wife, though she may receive, pays no visits. When the women travel, or move from one house to another, they are concealed with all the precaution generally attributed to an Eastern journey, their palanquins being carefully shut up. This jealous care, however, is not taken by all classes. The Rohillas, for instance, are less scrupulous : among themselves, their women travel unveiled, and without ceremony. Indeed, among the northern nations, we can trace but little of that guarded precaution so conspicuous in the cities of Hindostan.’—

‘ Primogeniture, among the Mahomedans, gives no superior claim to their real, or personal property : the division of the estate is easy, for a son gets double the share of a daughter.’—

‘ Widows seldom take a second husband, though allowed to do so.

‘ Women in India never go to public baths. Each house in general is furnished with hot and cold baths. Where the former cannot be afforded, a boiler is always in readiness.’

From these (abridged) details of native manners, let us pass to a consideration of the condition of our countrymen settled in India. Here we receive from Capt. Williamson, a veteran resident in that country, a confirmation of those qualified reports of the extent of India emoluments, which we have felt it to be our duty to insert at different times in our pages. Many of our countrymen imagine that a young man, who has entered the military service in India as a cadet, is on the high road to fortune ; a notion which is about as accurate as that which we find disseminated in our country-towns, concerning the rapidity of fortune-making in the metropolis. The fact is that such are the accommodations required in a warm climate, that a young man, while remaining a cadet, has great difficulty in living on his pay. On receiving a commission, his allowances are considerably increased : but his expences, in like manner, must be augmented, exclusive of his equipment to join his corps. Until within the last twelve years, the troops in the upper provinces received double pay, on account of the great price of liquors and of all imported articles in that remote quarter ; and while this rule continued in force, the upper provinces were deemed preferable in point of emolument : examples having occurred of considerable savings being made by the few who proceeded on a plan of determined economy, and had the courage to retire from the social circle for that express purpose. Since the abolition of double pay, however, the neighbourhood of Calcutta is considered as the best station, in consequence of the opportunities of making cheap purchases at the daily auctions of that city : but Capt. Williamson here omits in his calculations the important point that, in the upper provinces, the degree of heat is much less intense. It may be assumed as a general datum that the pursuit of fortune in India

is a contest with an unpropitious climate; and that the progressive decay of constitution, varying materially in different situations, is a primary object of consideration. There, as among ourselves, years roll on without producing the attainment of the sanguine visions of youth: but the officer, or the settler, who has had the precaution to prefer salubrity of situation to advantages generally deemed more important, will find that, in the long run, he bids fair to outstrip his competitors in the race. Wherever he may be stationed, his success in acquiring property will in a great measure depend on his caution in delaying marriage, an engagement which is replete in India with a very serious increase of expence.

‘Such is the increase of domestics, of cloathing, of accommodation, and, particularly, in keeping a carriage, without which no comfort can be expected, that it is utterly beyond the means of full four persons in five to receive an European lady into their houses. Even on a penurious scale, the difference will amount to full three hundred pounds yearly; but if, as is certainly desirable, it be conducted on a more appropriate footing, double that sum must be allowed. Add to this, the peremptory necessity that exists, for sending every child to Europe at a very early age; the expence of which is never to be computed under a hundred and fifty pounds. To complete the difficulties attendant on the occasion, it is a thousand to one but that, at the end of a few years, the mother is compelled, by those peculiar infirmities inseparable from her situation in that climate, to accompany her infants to Europe; there to seek the restoration of health, and to console herself among her little offspring, until the father may, notwithstanding those heavy demands created by the wants of his family, be able to save sufficient money to repair to the objects of his affection. This is no exaggeration: it is to be witnessed annually; and may be seen attended with the most distressing effects to most meritorious individuals, who unfortunately allow love to walk in at the door, without observing that poverty is treading upon her train.’

A considerable change in the mode of living in India has taken place since former days. Before the extension of our territories, and the augmentation of our military and mercantile establishments, it was common for gentlemen who occupied the higher offices to keep a kind of open house:

‘The dinner-hour being known, (for almost every family then dined between two and three o'clock,) it was rarely needful to make enquiries respecting the proper moment for repairing to the hospitable board. Little or no ceremony was required; the host being as much pleased with the compliment paid by the visit of a young friend, as the latter was to find a welcome among the most opulent and respectable portion of the European community. Nor did the benefit accruing to the latter confine itself within the limits of economical saving: it was generally found, that such as became habitually inmates of

of this description, were recommended to the notice of Government, or to such situations, (if not in the Company's service,) as afforded the immediate means of maintenance. — Such *was* the state of society when I first arrived in India, [1778] and such *was* the fair expectation, with which not only young gentlemen, but many 'far advanced upon time's list,' landed on the shores of the Ganges. —

'The gradual encrease of commercial transactions, and of intercourse with several parts of that extensive territory, which ultimately has come under the influence, if not the control, of the British government, served as invitations to many adventurers, who quitted Europe under assurances of employ in the East. Their expectations were generally confirmed by permanent establishments in various parts of the country; whereby a complete change took place, as to the estimation in which free-merchants, as they are generally termed, were held.' —

'It has consequently been found necessary to drop many customs suited only to a limited society, and to adopt a certain reserve, which may not be exactly conformable to those very sanguine ideas entertained by persons who may have read of the ancient regime of Oriental hospitality. There will, however, even at this day, be found much to approve; and the mind endued with sensibility will have to acknowledge many a civility. Formerly, few went to pay visits of ceremony during the forenoon; for, the dinner-hour being early, there was little time for such unsocial compliments; whereas, now, that it is generally delayed until about sun-set, that is to say, to perhaps five or six, or even to seven o'clock, the forenoon is more applicable to the reception of visitors; who, if on any terms of intimacy, do not hesitate to join the family at a little *avant-diner*, commonly called a *tiffin*, and known among us by the name of *lunch*. This kind of refreshment (for it is not considered a repast) usually takes place between one and two o'clock, and consists of grilled fowls, mutton chops, cold meats, and sometimes of *curry* and rice. Being conducted without ceremony, and in a very desultory style, the dropping in of friends never occasions the slightest discontinuance, any more than the accidental arrival among an English party here, of an intimate, while partaking of a slice of cake and a glass of wine. —

'Gentlemen who purpose visiting the ladies commonly repair to their houses between eight and nine o'clock in the evening; ordinarily under the expectation of being invited to stay and sup: an invitation that is rarely declined.' —

'In many instances, these evening visits are paid in a very airy manner: coats being often dispensed with; the gentlemen wearing only an upper and an under waistcoat, both of white linen, and the former having sleeves. Such would appear an extraordinary freedom, were it not established by custom; though, it generally happens, that gentlemen newly arrived from Europe, especially the officers of his Majesty's regiments, wear their coats, and prefer undergoing a kind of warm bath of the most distressing description, both to themselves, and to their neighbours; but, in the course of time, they fall in with the local usages, and, though they may enter the room in that cumbersome habit, rarely fail to divest themselves of it, so soon as the first ceremonies

ceremonies are over, in favour of an upper waistcoat, which a servant has in readiness.

'Supper, though enumerated among the ordinary meals of a family residing at the Presidency, seems rather to be the means of concentrating the party, than partaken of with that keenness we often witness in our colder climate. Few do more than take a glass or two of wine, generally Claret, with, perhaps, a crust, and a morsel of cheese: the appetite at this hour, say ten, being by no means keen. After supper, the *hookah* is again produced, and, after sitting awhile in conversation, the lady of the house retires: few remain long after that has taken place. On the whole, it may be said, that at least four in five are in bed before twelve; or, perhaps, before eleven o'clock. From this, I exempt all concerned in card-parties, especially if the stakes run high: for such, no measure, or calculation, exists; the whole night being occasionally passed at *tradrille*, which is the favorite game, or at *whist*, &c. Such exceptions fortunately are not very numerous; it would certainly be difficult to find any city wherein celibacy among the males is so prevalent, as at Calcutta, that can boast of so few excesses of any description. The European inhabitants of respectability certainly live well; that is, they keep as good tables as the seasons may enable them to furnish; and they drink none but the best of wines: Claret, Madeira, and Port, are in general use.' —

'Porter, pale-ale, and table-beer of great strength, are often drank after meals: all these are found in the utmost perfection, for indifferent malt-liquors do not stand the voyage. A temporary beverage, suited to the very hot weather, and called 'country-beer,' is in rather general use, though water, artificially cooled, is commonly drank during the repasts: in truth, nothing can be more gratifying at such a time, but especially after eating *curry*. Country-beer is made of about one-fifth part porter, or beer, with a wine glass full of *soddy*, (or *palm-wine*, which is the general substitute for yeast,) a small quantity of brown sugar, and a little grated ginger, or the dried peel of Seville oranges, or of limes; which are a small kind of lemon, abounding in citric acid, and to be had very cheap.

'The great cheapness and abundance of the materials, added to the frequent and great thirst to which Europeans are subject while resident in India, should appear to be strong inducements toward the free use of punch, lemonade, sangaree, negus, &c. The reverse is the case; for, I believe, with the exception of the lowest classes, all such beverages are totally discarded: they are deleterious; rarely failing, in the first instance, to injure, and ultimately disgracing all who yield to the temptation.—This habit never fails to produce that sottishness at all times despicable, but peculiarly unsuited to Oriental society, in which at least the better half are men of very liberal education, and all are gentlemen, having been brought up in the most respectable seminaries, and early initiated in the walks of decorum and integrity among their respective friends in Europe. — Coffee-house association is unknown in Calcutta, at least among the respectable members of the community. Neither does any corps in the Company's service keep a mess: all the officers dine either at home, or in small

small parties, according as their several fancies, or occasion, may lead them. It is common to hear one or two of a party, before they retire from table, which is always done without the least ceremony, enquire, who will dine with them the next day? Thus, it is extremely easy to avoid any obnoxious person, be the objection to him what it may. — Being once condemned, something more than ordinary must appear to produce his re-admission.' —

'The generality of European gentlemen rise about day-break, and either proceed to the parade, to their field diversions, or to ride on horseback, or on elephants; thus enjoying the cool air of the morning. From the middle of March to the middle of October, the sun is very powerful, even when the atmosphere is overcast with clouds of great density. This induces all who ride for health, or for pleasure, to avoid violent exercise; they proceeding, generally in small parties, each gentleman being attended by his *ryce* (or groom). — During some part of the year, when scarce a leaf is in motion, and the clouds hang very low, exercise, even so early in the morning, is often found more injurious than refreshing; at such seasons, nothing but the abundant perspiration which then relaxes the whole frame, and absolutely oozes through the light cloathing in common use, could prevent the occurrence of diseases highly inflammatory. Many feel so uneasy, in consequence of this unpleasant exudation, as to be induced to change their linen three or four times within the day; but, however refreshing such a change may prove, it is by no means to be commended; experience proving that considerable prostration of strength is the inseparable consequence of so ill-judged an indulgence. The best plan is, to have night apparel, and to ride out in the linen worn during the preceding evening; changing for a clean suit on returning, so as to sit down to breakfast in comfort.

'Those who are subject to bile cannot be too cautious in regard to their diet; which should be rather sparing, and confined to viands dressed in a simple manner. — I speak feelingly; for, although I did not possess sufficient resolution to withstand what then appeared a very alluring temptation, I have now the candor to confess, that thirst, heat, and uneasiness were generally attendant upon my imprudence, and no doubt occasioned me to swallow many a nauseous dose, which might have been avoided by a moderate share of discretion. Therefore, let me strongly recommend to those of my juvenile readers who may be about to proceed to India, not to indulge in eggs, salt-fish, &c. at breakfast.' —

'The markets at Calcutta are open at day-break; when very fine meat, of every kind, together with various sorts of choice fish, fruits, vegetables, &c., may be had on very reasonable terms. — It is impossible to produce finer mutton than is served upon table in India; nor can there be finer beef than is to be seen in most cantonments, and among fixed residents.'

The intercourse by post in India is more frequent and regular than the vast extent of our territory, and the limited number of British inhabitants, would lead us to imagine. A hirkarrah carries the mail-bag on a stick placed across his shoulder, for a stage

stage of eight miles ; and such is the expedition used, that 2 hundred miles are generally travelled in twenty-four hours. The rates of postage, if we consider the distance, are by no means high ; and nothing interrupts the regularity of arrival, except the danger in certain situations from tigers, and the necessity of circuitous turnings in the rainy season. A parcel-post (*dawk-bangy*) has of late also been established, and is productive of considerable accommodation to those who reside at a distance from the capital. Travelling like the *birkarrabs* by relays, the *dawk-bangies* are not greatly behind them in expedition. Conveyance by water between Calcutta and the subordinate stations is much adopted. The rainy season begins in June ; in which month the rivers often approach the summits of their banks, and fluctuate between them, rising and falling, until the great swell which takes place in August. Rice is the principal article of cultivation throughout the low grounds, and a delay in the swell of the water is a matter of serious moment to the husbandman, since rice will not thrive unless the stem be immersed for several inches ; and, owing to the formation of its stalk, which draws out like the concentric tubes of a pocket-telescope, it can put forth several feet in the course of a few hours, so as apparently to grow as fast as the water may rise, and to keep its pannicle from being overflowed. In parts which are subject to the regular annual inundations, all the villages are built on elevated ground, whether natural or artificial ; and besides this precaution, they are sometimes erected on piles or stakes, which raise their floor from four to six feet above ground, and give an opening to the passage of the waters during the flood. Boats are then seen sailing over the plains as over a boundless sea ; and, were it not for the strong colour of the current, it would be difficult to distinguish the track of the rivers in this fresh-water ocean. The low-lying country towards the mouths of the Ganges is overflowed during three months in the year ; and a stranger would not imagine the quantities of rice, of a coarse reddish cast, but sweet and larger grained, which are prepared in this district for exportation. The average return of the acre may here be computed at twenty hundred weight. In the higher country, rice is produced in a much smaller quantity : but, being cultivated with more care, the quality is superior. Wheat and barley are likewise produced largely in the upper districts. Living on rice is supposed to be injurious to the sight : but the injury is probably owing to eating it too hot, and in such quantities, at the evening meal, as can scarcely fail to be prejudicial to the stomach.

It cannot be too generally made known that the Company are willing to receive into their treasury and to allow interest

on

on the property of persons dying in India, if it be paid under the sanction of letters of administration; or by executors duly acknowledged by the supreme court of justice. This custom affords considerable security to the recovery of property bequeathed in India; and the relatives even of a private soldier may fully ascertain what has become of his effects.—The authority of British law is applicable to the natives within the limit of the presidencies only; beyond their immediate bounds, our courts of judicature can exercise jurisdiction over none but British subjects. About thirty years ago, the supreme court at Calcutta made an attempt to extend its powers into the interior, and to take cognizance of civil matters between the natives: but a strong opposition was manifested, and the attempt was immediately relinquished.

We have lately had occasion to expose to ridicule* the exaggerated conceptions entertained by foreigners respecting the commerce of India. The city of Calcutta, which Bonaparte's subjects, and very possibly Bonaparte himself, regard as the grand fountain of our wealth and revenue, is placed by Captain W. (Vol. ii. p. 502.) on a level, in point of commerce, with Bristol. The Calcutta ships are much larger, while those of Bristol are more numerous; the cargoes of the former are much more valuable, but the voyages of the latter are much more frequent. From July to January, the ships are abundant at Calcutta, but, during the rest of the year, few are to be seen. This difference is owing to the monsoon or trade-wind, which from the middle of March to the middle of September is southerly, and afterward comes round to the north, where it continues to blow regularly during five months. The great object, therefore, for outward-bound ships at Calcutta, is to save the season; that is, to get away before March. The Hoogly is navigable for Indiamen thirty miles above Calcutta: but our principal naval station is towards its mouth, at Diamond-harbour, a spot which is peculiarly unhealthy, and the grave of a considerable proportion of the crews of those vessels which happen to be moored there for any length of time. It is surrounded by the Soonderbunds, an immense wilderness covered with trees, occupying the whole of what may be called the Delta of the Ganges, and bordering the coast to the water's edge. This uncultivated tract, in length about 180 miles, and in width above 50, is intersected by several great rivers, and by innumerable creeks. It is along these waters only that this region can be penetrated; and the traveller must take care that neither the abundance of game nor the

* See the Review of Montgaillard's work, in our Numbers for January and February last.

beauty of the scenery allures him from his friendly bark, to fall a prey to the lurking tiger or the voracious alligator.— While on the subject of danger from animals, we may observe that, even in the cultivated parts of India, it is hazardous to approach buffaloes or cows; which have a strong antipathy to Europeans, and whenever they are seen at large should be shunned with great care.

In Vol. i. p. 503. Capt. W. introduces Mirza Abu Taleb Khan, whose *Travels* we lately noticed, (Rev. for June last, p. 182.) says that he came from Bengal in the same ship with him, and speaks rather contemptuously of him, particularly on the score of vanity. He compares Abu Taleb's poetical talents with those of Hafiz; one of whose Odes he for that purpose inserts, in a translation which flowed from the pen of Sir W. Jones, if we rightly recollect, though Capt. W. has not so assigned it.—An account of *Indian Jugglers* occurs at p. 407. of Vol. ii., which may interest those who have lately been amused in our metropolis by some *artists* of this class.

Capt. Williamson concludes his second volume with a promise of speedily publishing a "Description of India in general." This title, like many others of his expressions, is too vague to convey a clear idea of his intended work, and leads us to expect a very mixed kind of performance; yet even a medley, on a subject on which he has so much local knowledge, might be found to possess a claim to attention. On the general merits of the present Guide, we have little to add to our remarks at the commencement of this article. The style is generally inelegant, and occasionally even gross; and, coarse as are the manners of the natives of Hindoostan, it appears to us that several expressions of that nature in Capt. W.'s pages might have been spared without injury to the main point,—fidelity of representation. The book is ushered in by a dedication to the Court of Directors, worded in such a manner as to convey the belief that it appears under their patronage; a manoeuvre which all authors would wisely avoid who possess, in the value of their labours, a specific claim to respectability.

ART. VI. *Defects of the English Laws and Tribunals.* By George Ensor, Esq., Author of *National Education*, *National Government*, &c. 8vo. pp. 507. 12s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1812.

A WORK bearing this title, from the pen of Mr. Ensor, will create no surprize in those who have glanced at his other performances, or who have even read our late accounts (Rev. for June and July last) of two of them, which are in series with the present. To regard with admiration or affection the constitution of

of his country, because it is that under which he lives, or because it is the theme of the applause of most others, both natives and strangers, would be a weakness under which he does not labour. It never is the subject of his panegyric, but is often the topic of his invective; and whether he sees any thing good in it we cannot pretend to say, but if he does he very carefully keeps it a profound secret. Yet he has doubtless read the admired chapters of Montesquieu in praise of our laws and forms of government. This distinguished magistrate and philosopher was, it is allowed on all hands, a friend to mankind; his genius and attainments are admitted to have been such that he was not likely to confound together things that were opposite in their nature, to take good for evil and evil for good; and surely he was the last man to be suspected of erring so egregiously as to regard those as wise and equal laws which were impolitic and unequal. Was he not able to distinguish between the semblance and the reality of liberty; or can we imagine any good reason why he should have become the warm panegyrist of our polity, except from a conviction of its excellence? Or if in that instance he committed a most gross mistake, why should he have been followed in his encomiums by all foreign writers who lay claim to philosophy and liberality?

If, however, we recollect with pride the praises of Montesquieu, we have not forgotten his predictions; they are founded, we fear, on the eternal order of things: it is not a distempered imagination which discovers symptoms that their fulfilment is no chimera; and we shall not dissemble our opinion that this dread evil is to be warded off, and the dismal day to be removed to a distance, by attempts bearing indeed somewhat of the denomination of the present, but resembling it in little else than in name. Were Montesquieu still among us, and were the project submitted to him of forming the British on the model of the Spartan constitution, he would again repeat his remarkable words, "*il a battis Chalcédoin, ayant le Byzante avant ses yeux*;" or rather he would not deign to express a sentiment so preposterous a proposal. If Harington's projects were chimerical, they were well considered, and labour worthy of better objects had been bestowed on them.

We recollect that it was the fashion with a certain class among the French, when that ill-fated people professed a fondness for liberty, and fancied themselves capable of enjoying its blessings, to sneer at Montesquieu, and to hold cheap his inestimable labours; and Brissot was employed, while only the editor of a paper, to write down the philosopher of the old regime. This busy publicist, who afterward figured as a
leading

leading statesman, and became the head of a party, first imputed to Montesquieu a variety of tenets deeply injurious to the people, and then accused him of bestowing an attention on his style which was highly aristocratic, and very unworthy of a true patriot, whose devotion to the popular cause would not have suffered him to waste so much time as the learned President had consumed in giving point and finish to his labours. This same M. Brissot, among his other reforms, strongly recommended that of banishing all regard to idiom in the use of languages; since this, he intimated, would pave the way for one universal language, and thus remove a number of inconveniences under which mankind at present labour: adding, above all, that it would assist the propagation of the rights of man, and promote the diffusion of French liberty. We imagine that, in the estimation of Mr. Ensor, Montesquieu does not stand much higher than he did in that of the French democrat: but it is not Montesquieu alone that Mr. Ensor surpasses, and leaves behind in his notions of amelioration. Lord Hale experiences the same treatment. The commendations of our laws by this venerable person are introduced into the pages before us, and are, we suspect, regarded by the author as sufficiently discrediting themselves by their extravagance. Are they, however, so extravagant and unfounded? Did not this revered person comprehend the meaning of liberty and justice; or was he such a sycophant as to be all the time conscious that he was panegyricizing a system of slavery and oppression? Did he not understand the laws which he had during the course of a long life been employed in administering; or did he, who was so remarkable for the simplicity of his habits and manners, leave to posterity, as a legacy, sentiments which belied his clearest convictions? We will not say that we had rather err with Hale and Montesquieu than be right with Mr. Ensor: but we must own that with difficulty we shall become convinced that the latter is infallible, and that we are to place no dependence on the two former.

While, however, we disapprove the spirit and temper in which this work has been penned, and are of opinion that our institutions and laws are hardly treated, — and while we do not perceive any merit in waging war with decency and good manners, — let it not be concluded that we are desirous in any manner to restrain investigation and inquiry: on the contrary, none can be more solicitous that our institutions and laws should be open to discussion, and that it should range over their whole extent without controul. Whatever is rotten and unsound, let it be brought to light, severed, and removed. It is by this kind of treatment that our constitution has become what it is, and pos-

sesses

esses those excellences which we deem Mr. Ensor unjust in not allowing to it. Admirable as we think the English laws are in many respects and on the whole, we admit that they labour under many defects; and we wish to see these probed to the very bottom, and exposed to open day. Did it depend on us, no abuse would be tolerated, and no defect be allowed to remain, as far as our judgment and perception could operate: but we protest against a sweeping condemnation of the constitution, and against vilifying all that it possesses of sterling worth. We have not only to reprehend the temper in which this work has been composed, the disposition to cavil which shews itself in all parts of it, and the extraneous matter which is for ever introduced, but we have to complain of the author's want of due acquaintance with the subjects on which he has undertaken to animadvert. When a Bentham brings particular laws to the test of his principles, compares them with his comprehensive and well matured views, and suggests corresponding substitutions,—or when a Romilly proposes his cautious and well considered amendments,—we hail such attempts with gladness, satisfied that they rest on sure grounds. In such cases, we consider it to be a duty to do all that lies in our power to encourage and second those enlightened benefactors of their species, and to interest the public in their labours. By the side of these efforts, what place are we to assign to the crude effusions of Mr. Ensor? We recommend it to him to institute the comparison himself; and if he will rigidly conduct it, we leave him to appreciate the value of his own labours, and to give them their designation and rank.

The first topic on which the author touches is the civil law. We are told, as if it were something new, that the law of England has borrowed considerably from the civil code. Why this should be matter of reproach we cannot understand: but, it seems, the civil law, as we now have it, was compiled under the order of Justinian by the unprincipled Tribonian;—and Justinian was a tyrannical prince, and greatly under the influence of his empress the profligate Theodora;—and it is therefore impossible that a compilation so formed, and under such auspices, should contain just and equal laws. Why deal in pre-umptions when we have the thing itself, the very compilation which is the object of these surmises, and it is in our power to ascertain its merits and demerits for ourselves; and especially when this has been done to our hands by persons whose competence and qualifications are beyond dispute? It is impossible that the author should not be aware of Gibbon's incomparable chapter on this subject: but he cannot have read it, or he would not have ventured to have exposed his own imma-

ture views to the public. The law of England, says Mr. E., has borrowed much from the civil law, and therefore the law of England has great defects : but who has ever asserted that the civil law, if not throughout excellent, does not contain much that deserves such an epithet? From what part of it the law of England has been borrowed, the author has not informed us, and we suspect the reason to be that he does not know. We have not been able to perceive that he is deeply read in the Digest, or in our Plowden and Coke, although his pages contain several scraps from the latter. Has, then, the law of England incorporated with itself the unsound parts of the civil law? Except in the case of treason, in which the common law in various particulars has been superseded or modified by several statutes, we are here left to presume this to be the case : but what willing readers does the author suppose he shall obtain? Do the boasted constitution and laws of England deserve thus to be treated? Did our ancestors search into other codes only to borrow from them what is bad ; and is a reformer to require his readers to take all this for granted? The first thirty pages of this volume advance and make good the charge that the law of England has borrowed from the Roman law more than some of its professors have been willing to allow : but how much and what it has so borrowed, except as to one particular, no sort of specification whatever is given, but the reader is expected to believe that it has borrowed that which is bad. Thus are the defects of the law of England demonstrated in the first two chapters of this code of legal criticism.

If a sense of duty obliges us to speak of this author and his lucubrations in a manner that is painful to us, we are aware that he will estimate lightly our judgment ; for surely on him who holds so cheaply the declared opinions of Montesquieu and Hale, our observations can have little effect. Although he cannot be charged with credulity, still he seems to have a lurking persuasion that he is sent on some high service ; and that he has a commission, if not from heaven, at least from nature, or the eternal order of things, to labour in the work of reformation. Something of this sort seems liable to be inferred from his remark, when he says, ‘ I do *not* compare myself in any way to such men as Pericles, Phocion, Demosthenes, or Socrates ; and the mere exception, perhaps, will be reputed vanity. Nor do I suggest that my situation resembles that of Demosthenes, when demanded by Antipater and Craterus when they made war on Greece ; nor of Socrates, when persecuted to death by Anytus and Critias.’ We will not dispute with him whether ‘ votes have been passed, deeds achieved, and privileges assumed, and a dreadful spirit is in activity, that is
ominous

ominous to all who dare expose the truth:’ but we feel as much regret as he does, and as much humiliated, and apprehend consequences as much or more, when we reflect that ‘the House of Commons voted that the Walcheren expedition “was conceived with wisdom and executed with ability,” and the nation negatived with one voice their monstrous decision. The Duke of York was also absolved by the same body, and the voice of the people dismissed him from office.’ We have therefore no objection to add, ‘while an opportunity remains of speaking truth concerning the laws, and their administration, let us enjoy it:’ but we are of opinion that, in a work professing to criticise our laws, any reference to the actual administration of them had better be omitted. Such a task, besides the comprehension of mind, the attainments, and the researches, which it requires, should in our judgment be executed in the most calm and dispassionate manner. We do not disapprove the freest examination of these temporary matters, which on the contrary is indispensably necessary to the preservation of a free government: but we conceive that the general amendment of the laws of a state, and its occasional administration of them, are two distinct objects, which require to be treated in a very different manner, and cannot without great inconvenience be blended together and discussed in the same work. We too say, ‘let us speak the truth concerning the laws:’ but, if we be entire strangers to the laws when we say this, surely many years are requisite to qualify us to declare the desired truth. If we are ignorant of a subject, we may suppress its excellences without being guilty of bad faith, but how can we expose its demerits? A man who is accustomed to write will be at no loss to blot pages after pages with declamation and invective; or to give to surmises, inuendoes, and dark hints, the semblance of facts: but when his high-sounding paragraphs come to be examined, they will be found to contain no substantive charges. Do real and important defects exist in our laws, which should be removed? Do the attempts of persons utterly disqualified for the task of pointing them out, and correcting them, promote or accelerate the desired end;—do they render service or disservice? We leave the dispassionate reader to answer these queries.

Mr. Ensor asserts that our laws and tribunals are heterogeneous. We do not mean to dispute that our tribunals are susceptible of improvement: but we should expect the censor of them to have attended them for some length of time, and to have carefully perused those dry volumes in which their several constitutions and rules of practice are laid open. In the present publication, however, we find no references to *Hinde* or *Crompton*,

Crompton, to Harrison or Tidd, to Wyatt or Impey: but we are told that we have in this country courts in which the civil and the canon law are administered. To what does this charge really amount?—To this, that certain matters are regulated by such parts of those laws as are applicable to them: but this is known to be done very much under the controul of the common-law-courts, of which no notice is here taken. The writer is probably an entire stranger to writs of prohibition; and it is to be observed that not a single inconvenience arising from this arrangement is pointed out. It would be desirable that those parts of other laws should be selected, and that the whole body of our laws should be incorporated into one code: but the evil does not seem to be of that size which warrants the virulent spirit and acrimonious language of this publication, nor such as would intitle the reformer of it to rank with Demosthenes and Socrates. Undoubtedly, provisions of the canon-law are now in force, which deserve the invectives of Mr. Ensor, and of which his pen cannot paint the enormities in too gloomy colours. To Sir Samuel Romilly, we owe the hope that this disgrace to our jurisprudence will soon be effaced. On his benevolent suggestion, the House of Commons demanded this service from a learned judge, eminently qualified for the task; and we hope that he is proceeding in it. Professing an unfeigned veneration for that gentleman's very superior abilities and attainments, although we differ so widely from him on many points, we shall, when he has discharged this duty, consider him as having rendered a service that will intitle him to rank among the benefactors of his country.

With regard to the common-law, we can account for the cavils of the present author only by his total unacquaintance with the subject. That which is really its glory he represents as its opprobrium. Of those immortal rules and maxims which must find a place in every code of freedom, which we are fond of tracing to the woods of Germany, and which the pen of Tacitus has recorded in terms worthy to convey them, the principal are supposed to have had the authority of law previously to the art of writing. This has occasioned them to be denominated the unwritten law; and on this account they provoke the declamation of the present author. He knows that the entire body of this law, though called unwritten, is all to be found in hundreds of different works. Why are these rules and maxims the less valuable because our ancestors are supposed to have submitted to them as law before they became possessed of the art of writing? Are they less conceptions of the mind on that account; and is it not to their being conceptions of the mind, instead of to their being written, that all laws

owe their excellence? Does writing give them any intrinsic additional value? It secures their preservation, indeed, and renders improvement and useful additions more easy: but that a code of laws may exist under such circumstances, which shall be adequate to all the necessities of a people in an early stage of society, and may become the foundation of one that shall be adapted to an advanced state of improvement, is not controverted by this author, who is contented to reproach it solely with being called unwritten. Various barbarisms, which he tells us more enlightened times have removed, formerly defaced this excellent system; and usages in past ages prevailed under the British constitution, which militated against justice and liberty: but they have given way to growing light. Such are some of the grave objections which find a place in this body of criticism on the common-law.

In many observations, however, which are to be found in this work, we fully concur; and some of the subjects of which it treats, which require little previous study, and which rest on general reasoning, are occasionally well discussed. Such a remark applies to the author's examination of the power of parliaments, though we by no means adopt his conclusions. On this point there can be no argument, if the House of Commons, defective as we admit it to be in several respects, is not in its actual state acknowledged as a branch of the constitution, and identified with the people. We do not see how this can be denied by any who consider allegiance to be a duty. If principles are settled, this subject, about which so much has been said and written, does not appear to us to offer any insurmountable difficulties. We approve much that is here observed respecting civil disqualifications on account of religion, and respecting libel: but the spirit in which the volume is written, the absolute inefficiency displayed in the former part of it, and the desultoriness which pervades the whole, will occasion those portions of it to be neglected which are not devoid of interest and merit. Before the author again undertakes to animadvert on our constitution and laws, we advise him to sit down to the serious study of them: if we do not extremely mistake, he will find in them something besides matter for censure and cavil; and should he deem it fit to favour the public with the result of such studies, his productions will probably bear a character very different from that under which the present must rank.

ART. VII. *Poems by Caroline Symmons, and Charles Symmons, D.D., Author of "The Life of Milton," &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 412. 12s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1812.*

WE were first introduced to the poetry of Miss Caroline Symmons in a sort of appendix to Mr. Wrangham's poem, intitled "The raising of Jafrus's Daughter." (See M. R. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 437.) She now appears associated with her father's muse, forming a more complete and captivating exhibition; and it is impossible to have our attention re-excited to this instance of early intellectual excellence without lamenting, as formerly, its very transient state, and offering a second tribute of applause. This young lady, who died of a decline soon after she had reached her 14th year, (June 1. 1803,) displayed a brilliancy of fancy and a richness of expression which seem at the first glance to be little short of miraculous; and the solemn assurance given and repeated by her still sorrowing father, that 'these compositions are in the *strictest sense* her own,' must increase the reader's astonishment. It was impossible that a parent, of such eminent attainments and classical taste as Dr. Symmons possesses, should not feel extremely proud of such a daughter; and when he indulges his pen in the most glowing expressions of enthusiasm, fondness, and grief, we must acknowledge that neither the talents lamented nor the genius lamenting them are to be classed among the ordinary gifts of nature. This complete edition of his daughter's poems, including a few never before given to the public, and accompanied by several of his own productions, will serve to gratify some of the noblest feelings of the heart, but must re-open the fountain of sorrow. 'I console myself,' says the Doctor in the preface, 'with the opportunity of uniting my name with the name of one, whose mind was illumined with the brightest visions of fancy, whose bosom was a paradise inhabited by the natives of heaven, who was bound to me by ties of the most vital sensibility, who was mine, in short, by an incorporation of hearts, and for whose loss the wound is still open in my breast, and the tear not yet exhausted in my eye.'

Compared with the rest of her sex, at her tender age, Miss Symmons must strike all observers as a sort of wonder: but, since real miracles have ceased, we must look out for some probable reasons to account for appearances which seem to be beyond the usual course and order of nature. Miss Symmons, it is true, "lisp'd in numbers:" but her lisps were not "wasted in the desert air." In Dr. S.'s family, she breathed, from her infancy, a poetic atmosphere; the earliest indications of genius were sedulously fostered; the first flowers which she gathered were at the foot of Parnassus; and our best poets came before her

her as soon as she could read them, recommended by a parent's adoration of them: hence her memory was early stored with the language of song. In the last poem of the former collection, addressed to Lady Lucy Foley, the fair writer's acquaintance with Pope's *Elegy* on an Unfortunate Lady can easily be traced; and in the long poem intitled *Laura*, the last in the present collection, (said to have been written at Worthing, in Sussex, during the autumn of 1800,) the whole plan must have been suggested by Mr. Walpole's *Castle of Otranto*. The character of Manfred exhibits beyond all doubt the source whence Miss S. derived the thought; and we were rather surprised that Dr. S. has omitted to notice so obvious a circumstance. It remains truly extraordinary that so young a lady (she who must then have been little more than eleven years old) should have projected a long poem, and have actually executed a considerable part of it in a style of force and grandeur, on the *fond* of such a romance as that of the *Castle of Otranto*.

Mr. Wrangham's memoir, with some corrections and notes, is prefixed to this volume; and as it was but briefly mentioned in our former article, we shall embrace the present opportunity of giving a sketch of its lamented subject. Mr. W. informed us that, from her infancy, she discovered indications of very superior powers of intellect, and that in her seventh year he had first an opportunity of forming an estimate of them. The earliest, however, of her compositions, which was sent to him by her father, is *Zelida*, written November 14. 1800, and which we copied in the article already cited. Other poems, particularly *Laura*, are mentioned as the production of this or some one of the wintery months; from which it is inferred that Miss Symmons's infantine muse (like that of her own Milton) "flowed most happily from the autumnal equinox to the vernal." In summer, indeed, the time is often passed chiefly without doors, and long nights are more propitious to study. — So passionate an attachment did Miss S. feel for our best English poets, and particularly for Milton, that on her returning home one morning from the house of Mr. Ware, the oculist, where she had been undergoing an operation, when a tender concern was expressed for the possible danger to which the sight of the afflicted organ was exposed, she said with a smile, that "to be a Milton, she would cheerfully consent to lose both her eyes." Animated by the noblest feelings, Mr. Wrangham summonses his utmost powers to render justice to the personal beauty, the mental endowments, and the moral charms of his young heroine, and thus concludes his memoir:

'She was, in short, as pure a character as perhaps has ever appeared; and discovered, in the short space of fourteen years, a very singular

singular combination of intellectual and moral excellence. But she is gone from this valley of grief to that better world, where there shall be "no more death, neither sorrow nor crying, neither shall there be any more pain: for to her the former things are passed away." Rescued from the dangers and evils of this probationary state, she is surely in her fate, as she was in her faculties and her accomplishments, most enviable.—Alas! I speak—as a philosopher: but, when I turn my eyes to my own little prattling daughters, I shudder at the uncertainty of fate: I mingle my tears with those of my friend: I feel—as a man.'

Not having the first edition of Miss Symmons's poems to compare with the present, we cannot exactly state in what respect this differs from its predecessor: but we believe that the two poems intitled *Florio* and *Laura* are additions. The first is introduced by this short notice from Dr. S.:

'Miss C. Symmons not liking the peculiarity of her own handwriting, she generally employed the pen of her elder sister to commit her verses to paper. When she wrote them down herself, she confided them to the first scrap which occurred to her; and then wholly neglected them. Some of them have, in consequence, been lost; and some been found, after her decease, in a mutilated and imperfect state. Among these was the following unfinished poem. When it was composed, or whether it was brought by its author to a conclusion, I am unable to ascertain; but I am inclined to think that it is to be classed with her earliest attempts in verse, and was written about the same time with the two first pieces in this collection. With more marks of carelessness than are usually to be found in her compositions, several of its stanzas are beautiful, and the selection of its story, for its melancholy cast, remarkable and peculiar. To supply the deficiency of one stanza, I have been obliged to insert two lines, which are distinguished by italics. C. S.

' FLORIO.

' The sun had just removed the clouds of night,
And evening dews still spangled o'er the mead;
The flowers unclosed their blooms to hail the light,
When the young Florio left his lowly bed.
Onward he walk'd, unweeting where he stray'd,
For his gay heart ne'er felt mirth-pois'ning care;
His milk-white flock around his footsteps play'd,
And blooming flowrets fragranced all the air.
The breathing scene delighted Florio's eye,
He stopp'd and pull'd the roses from their stems;
The bashful violet, of a purple dye,
The hare-bell cluster'd with the morning's gems.
"Come, every flower," he cries, "that decks the grove,
Thou, primrose, bending o'er thy velvet bed;
Haste all, and join to ornament my love,
To form a garland for my Emma's head."

Then

Then from the scene as Florio turn'd his eyes,
 A lowly cottage stood before his sight ;
 'Twas roof'd of straw, small was its shapely size,
 And all appear'd the seat of sweet delight.
 Around its walls a fragrant rose entwined
 Her blushing arms, which warm with crimson glow'd ;
 The circling pales were gaily jessamin'd,
 And through the grass a winding streamlet flow'd.
Pleased with the simple interest of the place,
He gazed till, as on thoughts of woe intent,
 A man he saw ; despair had worn his face,
 And his fine form by length of years was bent.
 " Old man," young Florio thus the sage address'd,
 " Say from what sorrows flows that frequent tear.
 Oh ! if by grief your bosom is oppress'd,
 Let Florio try your sinking heart to cheer.
 A shepherd's life flows sweetly and serene,
 Calm as the sky, when spread with summer blue ;
 Pleasing and cheerful as the mellow'd scene,
 When the pale moon displays her silver hue."
 " My happiness," the man replied, " is gone !"
 And as he spoke he shook his hoary head :
 " Within this world I'm helpless and alone,
 Since both my Charles and Emily are dead !
 Oh ! may I never cease again to weep !
 Since 'tis for Charles and Emily I mourn.
 And may these eyes ne'er know the balm of sleep !
 Since they can never from the grave return.
 When my Emilia hover'd near her death,
 Ah ! stranger, hadst thou then the damsel seen,
 With pallid cheeks, half-suffocated breath,
 Sure thou would'st never have forgot the scene.
 Shepherd ! you weep ! ye heavens ! can one so young,
 In the misfortunes of Cordelius share ?
 Have my sad griefs your tender bosom wrung ?
 Or has that bosom known some kindred care ?
 Then come within this bower's impending shade,
 The story of my sorrows I'll relate ;
 That bower, which they so oft with flowers array'd,
 Shall hear me mourn their sad untimely fate.
 Know then, young man, two children bless'd my arms,
 Two children, lovelier than the stars of night :
 The opening rose-bud could not match their charms,
 Nor did the golden morn appear so bright.
 In industry and mirth we pass'd the hours ;
 Nor thought of death, that came, alas ! too soon :
 Our eyes we pass'd within these blooming bowers,
 And saw with cheerful eyes the rising moon.
 In their sweet company my troubles fled ;
 With them my poverty was all forgot :
 But now my Charles and Emily are dead,
 And with sharp pangs I mourn my hapless lot.

One year dire Famine rag'd o'er all the land,
 And changed the face of this once fertile ground :
 She came, she held a dagger in her hand,
 And cast a horrid smile on all around.
 'Twas just, young man, as if the demon said,—
Cetera desunt."

Of the short poems, we transcribe one which was written
 March 16. 1801, called

‘ THE HARE-BELL.

‘ In Spring’s green lap there blooms a flower,
 Whose cups imbibe each vernal shower :
 Who sips fresh Nature’s balmy dew,
 Clad in her sweetest, purest blue :
 Yet shuns the ruddy beam of morning,
 The shaggy wood’s brown shades adorning.
 Simple floweret ! child of May !
 Though hid from the broad eye of day :
 Though doom’d to waste those pensive graces
 In the wild wood’s dark embraces ;
 In desert air thy sweets to shed,
 Unnoticed droop the languid head ;
 Yet Nature’s darling thou’lt remain ;
 She feeds thee with her softest rain :
 Fills each sweet bell with honied tears :
 With genial gales thy blossom cheers.
 Still then unfold thy bashful charms
 In yon deep thicket’s circling arms.
 Far from the common eye’s coarse glare,
 No heedless hand shall harm thee there.
 Still then avoid the gaudy scene ;
 The flaunting sun, the embroider’d green ;
 And bloom and fade, with chaste reserve, unseen.’

The whole number of Miss Symmons’s compositions amounts
 to twenty.

That portion of the volume which contains the productions
 of Dr. S. is formed also for the most part of re-publications.
 The tragedy of *Inez* occupies the largest space, and is now in-
 troduced by a very manly and spirited preface. As a staunch
 Whig of the old school, Dr. Symmons originally inscribed this
 drama to his friend, and then brother-Whig, Mr. Windham : but,
 being greatly hurt by the defection of that gentleman from those
 principles which cemented their friendship, he has now sup-
 pressed that dedication, and intrepidly records the motives and
 feelings by which he is actuated. Merely as a piece of fine
 writing, the passage is worthy of transcription : but it is still
 more intitled to notice for the Roman virtue of sacrificing pri-
 vate feelings on the altar of public principle.

• Some

‘ Some knowledge of this poem, as it was first intended for publication, having been already communicated to the world, it is too late for me to conceal that it was originally inscribed to a man of rich intellectual possessions and of great moral worth ; who was then united to me by a friendship begun in our academical youth, cemented by a similarity of studies, sentiments, and feelings, and apparently firm beyond the power of the varying accidents of life to shake or impair. Why then has this inscription been suppressed, or not replaced by another ? Death, as it may justly be remarked, ought to consecrate the memory of the friend, and to rivet it with adamant upon the sensitive and honest heart. But long before his lamented separation from the living ; this friend, who was lodged in my very inmost bosom, was unfortunately wrested from me. Mr. Burke, and the French Revolution, and a change in his domestic state, deprived me of what I had enjoyed during a series of happy years, and converted the object of my proud regard into the zealot of aristocratical and factious alarm ; into the accomplice and the instrument of Mr. Pitt ; into the advocate of “ *a vigour beyond the law* ;” into the supporter of atrocious and sanguinary prosecutions ; into the patron of barracks and of military contrivance ; into the libeller (and again, in the course of a few revolving moons, the associate) of Mr. Fox ; into the advancer, even by the means of jobs, of the double family given to him by nature and by connexion.

‘ Under the deformity of such an entire change, was it possible that I could acknowledge the *friend with whom I had taken sweet counsels*, or that he should not be ashamed of acknowledging me ? In the ruin which now threw a gloom and a menace over the soil from which it sprang, and gave it’s fantastic ivy to frolic in the wind as it shifted from opposite points, was it possible that I could discover (or discover without anguish) that stately temple, which had once delighted my sight, and almost compelled my adoration ? No ! if I thought of the Windham of former years, it was only to weep over the Windham which was before me ; and acutely to feel the death of those hopes, which an intimacy with his virtues and his powers had reared into vigorous life. With a sort of pertinacious instinct, my affection indeed followed him to his grave : but to eulogize or even apologize for him, under the impression of later days, was a deed for which I found myself disqualified ; and the pen fell from my hand to settle in it’s more appropriate station between the immortalizing fingers of Mr. Malone.’

It is stated that the first edition of *Inez* was withdrawn from its projected circulation, with the exception of a few copies ; and Dr. S. is therefore induced to regard the present reprint as its first actual appearance in the world : at any rate, it was scarcely known, we believe, as the production of his pen. We were, however, among those who possessed it ; and having made our public report of it, we can now do no more than refer to our xxist Vol. N.S. p.131.

The minor pieces display much taste and elegance, as well as creative fancy. In the concluding couplet of the Sonnet to Mrs. Symmons, (at p. 90.)

‘ Scared by the tempest’s roar, and rushing rain,
To his loved fostering hearth more fondly clings the swain,’

we have almost a copy from Goldsmith’s picture of the Swiss peasant, in the Traveller :

“ While the loud torrents and the tempest’s roar
But bind him to his native mountain more.”

A version of the fourth book of the *Æneis* is introduced by a judicious preface, in which Dr. Symmons nicely appreciates the merit of Virgil, and places his skill as a poet in a right point of view. They who consider the Mantuan bard as a mere plagiarist, or imitator, greatly undervalue his verse. If he avails himself of the fictions of the Grecian muse, he employs these materials with the dexterity of a consummate artist :

‘ Virgil,’ says Dr. S., ‘ borrows largely (and rather, with an ostentation of the fact) from the affluence of the Grecian muses : but what he thus takes he converts into the means of his own wealth ; and with the materials of others he completes his own grand and original design. The bricks may be drawn from other buildings ; but the stately edifice, to the rearing of which they are thus compelled to contribute, is not indebted to them for its symmetry and beauty ; neither is the merit of the architect in any degree diminished by the circumstance of his not being the maker of these subordinate parts of his structure. He may even borrow an architrave or a capital sculptured by the chisel of a former artist ; and, if the ornament be blended harmoniously with the work into which it is admitted, the master will be praised, rather than censured, for thus ably availing himself of the operations of preceding art.’

A new translation of Virgil must, in course, become an object of comparison, and with the labors of Dryden and Pitt the present author seems desirous of having his efforts contrasted :

‘ If my version be compared by the scholar with the original, it will probably be pronounced faithful to the sense, and possibly not false to the spirit of the Roman page : but in all the beauties of diction, it must necessarily be condemned as lamentably inferior ; if it be perused by the English reader, with reference to the only two translations of the same work which are now worthy of notice, those I mean by Dryden and by Pitt, it may be regarded as not destitute of a sort of relative merit ; and may perhaps be declared to be more vigorous than one of these versions, and more equal than the other ; while, as the representative of the original, it may claim the praise of more fidelity than either of them.’

At the end of his preface, Dr. S. adds,

‘ I know

' I know not whether it may be of consequence to observe that the version, now submitted to the public, approaches more nearly to the brevity of the original than that of either of my immediate predecessors; being shorter by fifty-nine lines than Dryden's, and by sixty-four than Pitt's. If regard be paid to the relative lengths of the classic hexameter, and of our five-foot iambic, my translation will be found to exceed the length of the original only by a very few lines: and, when we reflect on the compressibility of the Roman language, and the peculiarly condensed and vigorous style of the great Roman epic, it may be admitted as a species of merit in the translator, to have included the ideas of his original within the same, or very nearly the same, compass of expression.'

On the score of fidelity, condensation, and vigor of expression, we certainly think that this version will gain by the comparison which it challenges; yet perhaps it might be made more perfect were it retouched by Dr. S. himself. The lines,

—— ' the beauteous Queen,
As her fair hands the sacred goblet hold,
On the white heifer's forehead pours the gold,'

will not be clear to the mere English reader. Pouring the gold, or the silver, for pouring the contents of a gold or silver cup or goblet, is scarcely an authorized expression. Here Dryden is more luminous and closer to the original; though he indeed has not translated the *pateram* of Virgil, and has introduced *flowers* and the epithet *ruddy*, which ought not to intrude:

" A milk-white heifer she with *flow'rs* adorns,
And pours the *ruddy* wine betwixt her horns."

The "*infandum si fallere possit amorem*," in the 85th line of the original, is thus expanded by Dr. S.:

' Ah! blest! could she deceive with arts like these
The mighty power of love, and steal to ease.'

Dryden's single line conveys the idea more neatly:

" If love by likeness might be so beguil'd."

Is "*Maenid mentum mitra crinemque madentem
Subnexus*,"——

properly translated by the following line?

' His Phrygian mitre tied to *prop* his chin.'

We do not so much object to *prop* because it is made the corresponding word to *subnexus*, as because it conveys a wrong idea: the tying under the chin was not made for the sake of the chin, but in order to fasten the mitre or bonnet over the perfumed hair.*

* In Mr. Hope's *Costume of the Ancients*, second edition, Vol. i. plate 21., are several representations of Phrygian bonnets or helmets; by which it will be seen in what way they were fastened under the chin.

'*Lord of the brain*,' in the 309th line of the translation, has nothing corresponding to it in the original. The same may be said also of l. 933., 'And the torn vessels yield a bubbling sound.'

Dr. S. is so attentive, in general, to the circumstance of rhyme, that we were surprised at l. 808. to find the following couplet:

'But doubtful still had been the fate of war:—
Secure of death, whom—what had I to fear?'

We will not, however, farther "nibble at niceties," as an old alliterative writer says, but proceed to exhibit such a fair sample of this translation as will manifest its prevalent character. It maintains an uniform spirit, and any one portion will be an exact specimen of the whole. We shall transcribe the speech of Æneas to the afflicted Dido, who vents her grief and rage on the Trojan when she discovers his purpose of abandoning her:

'Thus she: by Jove constrain'd, his eyes he held
Unmoved, and his love-faltering heart compell'd:
Then briefly spoke at last: "O Queen! what you
Can claim of richest merit, is your due.
And while the memory of myself remains,
While life's warm spirit quickens in my veins,
Still shall your worth be treasured in my breast;
And still Elissa's virtues be confest.
To all beside, I painfully reply:
Mistake not, that I hoped by stealth to fly.
I ne'er pretended to a husband's claim:
Not such our union, or it's rights the same.
If, to myself resign'd, I yet were free,
My act unfetter'd by the Fates' decree;
First would I cherish my dear native land,
And prostrate Troy should rise beneath thy hand;
The vanquish'd triumph in their alter'd state,
And Priam's palace once again be great.
But, from his Lycian and Grynzan shrine,
Apollo's voice ordains Italia mine:
To great Italia bids me waft my care:
My country that—my patriot love is there.
If on this Lybian coast, though sprung from Tyre,
You see well-pleased your Punic towers aspire;
Why may not we enjoy the Ausonian land,
And build dominion on a foreign strand?
Oft as o'er earth the humid veil of night
Is drawn, and heaven with living fires is bright;
Anchises' angry shade, forewarning harm,
Invades my dream, and chills me with alarm.
Me, too, my loved and wrong'd Ascanius blames:
Withheld by me, Hesperia's crown he claims—

His

His by the Fates; and now, to make me just,
Jove sends his herald to enforce my trust —
Hermes himself: I both the Gods attest!
My eyes the power, array'd in light, confess;
Even here he stood; his accents, as he spoke,
On my struck ear with deep impression broke.
Cease then! and wound your heart and mine no more:
Constrain'd by Heaven, I seek Italia's shore."

Now for the Queen's imprecation, when from her tower in
the morning she perceives Æneas's fleet at sea:

'Thou, Sun! whose eye of fire sees all below;
Thou, nuptial Juno! conscious of my woe;
Thou, Hecate! severe nocturnal Power,
Invoked with howlings in the midnight hour;
Ye, Furies of revenge! ye Gods! who wait
On Dido's death, the ministers of fate!
Attend! Your righteous deities incline
To wrongs so deep, and prayers so just as mine!
If this dire man must struggle to the land,
Must gain the port, as Jove and Fate command;
So let it be: — but let him joy no more!
Preserved from ocean, be he wreck'd on shore!
Oppress'd by nations of unwielding war,
Torn from Ilium, from his confines far,
An exile, let him sue for aid in vain,
And see his comrades strew the ensanguined plain,
And when at last beneath injurious peace
He stoops, O let not then his labours cease!
Then cheated of the hopes he bought so dear,
The tranquil sceptre and life's hoary year,
Oh! let him fall in gore before his day,
Unburied on the sands, the vulture's prey!
This is my prayer: and O ye Gods! make good
These my last words, that issue with my blood!
And you, my Tyrians! to my Manes just,
Cherish my hatred as a sacred trust!
Pursue to death the whole detested line!
No love, no leagues, the hostile people join!
Rise, too, some great avenger from my tomb,
To urge with steel and fire the Dardan's doom!
Now, and hereafter, as the strength may grow,
Still let our vengeance strike, our battle glow!
Theirs still our shores, waves, arms opposing face;
And one vast hate inspire all our race!

A version of that part of the second book which relates the
death of Laocoon is next presented to us; and we think that,
by both these specimens, the reader will be induced to wish
that Dr. Symmons would translate the whole of the Æneis.

ART. VIII. *Some Account of the Life and Writings of James Benigne Bossuet, Bishop of Meaux.* By Charles Butler, Esquire. Crown 8vo. pp. 180. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

OFTEN have we borne a willing and a decided testimony to the thirst for knowledge, the industry, and the research which so honourably distinguish the present biographer of the celebrated French prelate. In this, as in all his literary productions, his object seems to be to collect together useful and curious information; and to impart it to his readers in a neat, concise, and perspicuous manner. To the graces of composition and the beauties of style he appears not to aspire; and the story of the great Bossuet here appears in the same plain garb in which we suppose the author to clothe his legal opinions. Yet this observation would perhaps not have pressed itself on our attention, had not the subject of his labours now been of a more than ordinary kind; and were it not impossible to think of that exalted person without connecting with him all that is transcendent in mind, all that is great in conception, and all that is exquisite in style. A genius of the highest rank, possessed of unrivalled acquirements, placed at the head of his order, acting his part on a most splendid stage, surrounded by the most imposing consideration,—such was the object of this memoir; and we do not disparage the eminent lawyer who has composed it, if we say that he has not entirely done it justice. Of those whose days have been exclusively devoted to the pursuit of letters, and of whose hours no part is occupied by business, few are equal to an undertaking like the present. Unreasonable is he who wishes for a better account than is here given of the events of the prelate's life, of the sentiments which he espoused, and of the part which he bore in public transactions: but the reader of taste, who has hung with transport over his pages, looks for something beyond this: he expects the causes of his delight to be laid open, the excellences which astonished him to be analyzed, and the faults of his favourite author (if he had any) to be detected. Something of this sort will be found in the pages before us: but this respectable writer has too much good sense to make such attempts himself: indeed, the *cut and trim* of them shew them to be dealt out at second hand, and bespeak them to be manufactured by countrymen of the prelate.

In some of the few critical observations which Mr. B. does offer, we are sorry to be obliged to differ from him. We can by no means coincide with him when he says, 'Nothing seems more flowing or more easy than the style of the late Mr. Edmund Burke; it has all the *appearance* of an unpremeditated eloquence.' If it were allowed us to report on the subject, we should be constrained

to say that in no performances of the same order do we fancy that we see so many traces of labour, and that in no author of celebrity is the *ars celare artem* less conspicuous. In all his pages, if we except his first production, the *Treatise on Natural Society*, and which in a literary point of view we consider as by far the best of his publications, the toil is to us extremely apparent. We are here indeed afterward told that Mr. Burke really bestowed much time on correcting and revising his compositions. We believe that he did: but, had he corrected and revised them more, he would perhaps have better deserved the encomium here passed on him, as being master of a flowing and easy style. We are equally unable to adopt another opinion here given, that 'the labour bestowed by a great writer to render his performances finished is a *drudgery*.' We can conceive as little *drudgery* in the repeated touches which we suppose a Shaftesbury and a Shipley to have given to their exquisite compositions, as in the corresponding exertions of a Reynolds and a West to impart life to the canvas. To revise compositions which consist of dry and tedious forms, filled up by irksome minutiae and endless repetitions, and which have no scope for invention and scarcely any for ingenuity, may be a wearisome toil, which a fee can alone make tolerable: but if it be a labour for genius to render its own productions worthy of itself, *labor ipse voluptas*.

The volume before us, however, possesses very considerable merit, and prefers respectable claims to the attention of the English reader, for whom it was designed. It will acquaint him with all the events of the time which connected themselves with the great subject of the work; it will impart information which is highly curious and interesting; and, although the biasses of the author are easily discoverable, his narrative is on the whole impartial. We should be culpable in withholding from our pages the following account of the French prelate's early studies; since, though it is rather defective, and by no means a favourable specimen of the present performance, it is too material a point to be passed over in the life of a person whose fame was derived from his literary attainments and labours. The disproportionate space allowed to this topic, in Mr. Butler's volume, is unquestionably a circumstance which its readers will greatly regret:

'All the biographers of Bossuet mention, that, in the early part of his studies, he acquired a perfect knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages; that he had repeatedly perused the works of the principal poets, historians, and orators of antiquity, and that Homer and Demosthenes, among the Greeks, and Virgil among the Latins, were his favorite authors. His acquaintance with them gave him that chaste and nervous style, which is so seldom attained by persons,

who have not formed themselves on those models. In the works of such writers, brilliant, pathetic, and even sublime passages are often found; but that, which constitutes the perfection of style, and alone enables it to engage attention, when it is not excited by a sentiment, an image, or a turn of phrase particularly striking, the indescribable charm of the proper word in the proper place, is learned nowhere but in the Greek and Roman school. With how much difficulty it is attained, Bossuet himself is a striking example. The Benedictine editors of his works inform us, that his manuscripts are so much disfigured by obliterations, insertions, and corrections of every sort, as to be almost illegible.'—

'Through life, Bossuet was a very early riser: and if, while he was in bed, his sleep was delayed or interrupted, he availed himself of it, to write his letters, or to commit to paper any interesting thought which occurred to him; he also frequently gave this time to prayer. No portion of time, he used to say, was so favourable to devotion, as the stillness of the night; none, when the Holy Spirit was more propitious to those who invoke him.

'He had no regular hours for his meals; visits of ceremony, which the most imperious etiquette did not prescribe, he neither received, nor paid: but it appears that he was easy of access, and affable in conversation. — He was so covetous of his time, as to deny himself the blameless recreation of a walk in his garden.'

The conduct adopted by Bossuet with regard to stage-entertainments leads Mr. Butler to give an account of their origin in France, which he has executed with his usual neatness and brevity. The Bishop was a resolute enemy of the stage, and his sentiments on the subject are delivered in a work called *Maximes sur la Comédie*. Many of our readers will doubtless be surprised to learn the state of degradation in which the government and church of France, until the period of their subversion, affected to hold the stage. The biographer takes notice of the controversy between D'Alembert and Rousseau on this topic, and then remarks:

'In 1761, the celebrated Mademoiselle Clairon, professionally consulted with M. Huerne de la Motte, a French avocat, on the reprobation of actors by the civil law of France, and the supposed excommunication of them by the Gallican Church. M. Huerne de la Motte delivered his opinion, in a long dissertation, in which he attempted to shew, that the laws both of the State and the Church against the Theatre were founded in prejudice; and that the supposed excommunication of the actors was an invasion of the liberties of the Gallican Church. On the motion of M. Joly de Fleury, the Procureur General of the King, the Parliament of Paris ordered this dissertation of M. Huerne de la Motte to be burned by the hangman; and, on a general requisition of the French bar, M. Huerne de la Motte was expelled from it.

'M. Desprez de Boissy, in his "Lettres sur les Spectacles," (ed. 1774, 2 part, pa. 673.) mentions, that two individuals having entered

entered into an agreement to establish a new theatre, one of them, from motives of conscience, declined the adventure; that the other instituted, in one of the civil courts of Paris, a suit to compel him to perform his part of the contract; and that the Court was of opinion, that the contract was morally vicious, and therefore legally void.'

The repeated discussions of theatrical claims in our own courts of law, particularly those which are now carrying on in the High Court of Chancery, shew in what a different light the same matters are regarded in this country. We find, contrary to our expectations, that the proceedings in France are related by the author without any reprobation of them: yet, in our opinion, no language can be used which is too strong to expose the hypocrisy of the Gallican church, and the injustice and pusillanimity of the old government of France, respecting the condition in which persons connected with the drama were suffered to remain. If this grand member of the Roman religion condemned dramatic exhibitions, we hope that every Catholic is not bound to entertain a similar hostility.

Mr. Butler next adverts to the *Exposition de la Foi catholique*, which is a very extraordinary performance; displaying to the utmost advantage all the learning, skill, and ingenuity of which its great author was master. A more full account of this performance, and a brief analysis of it, would have very properly made a part of the volume before us.

'In composing it,' (says Mr. Butler,) 'Bossuet was sensible how important it was, not only to himself, but to the whole Church, that it should be absolutely free from error. With this view, he caused a small number of copies of it to be privately printed, and he circulated them among several persons of acknowledged learning and piety in the Gallican Church, with a request from him, that they would favour him with their remarks, on any parts of it, that should appear to them obscure, erroneous, or imperfect. — After he had received their communications, he published the Work, and prefixed to it the formal approbations of the Archbishops of Rheims and Tours; of the Bishops of Châlons, Uzes, Meaux, Grénoble, Tulle, Auxerre, Tarbes, Béziers, and Autun.

'Soon after it's publication, Bossuet received from Cardinal Boncompagni, Cardinal Chigi, and Hyacinth Libelli, then Master of the Sacred Palace, afterwards Archbishop of Avignon, the most unequivocal and unqualified approbations of it; and it was twice formally approved by Pope Innocent the XIth, first, by a brief, dated the 22d of November 1678, and afterwards, by a brief dated the 12th of July 1679. The Clergy of France, in their Assembly of 1682, signified their approbation of it, and declared it to contain the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. It is translated into the language of every country, where the Roman Catholic religion is either dominant or tolerated.

‘ Roman Catholics have but one opinion of it : — in public and in private, by the learned and unlearned, it is equally acknowledged to be a full and faultless Exposition of the Doctrine of their Church.

‘ A translation of it was published, in English, by the Abbé Montagu, in 1672 ; in Irish, by Father Porter, at the press of the Propaganda, in 1673 ; in German, by the Prince Bishop of Paderborn, in the same year ; in Dutch, by the Bishop of Castorie, in 1678 ; in Italian, by the Abbé Nazari, under the inspection of the Cardinal d'Etrées, who, himself, corrected the proofs of the impression. This translation was formally approved of by Ricci, the secretary of the Sacred Congregation of Indulgences, and by Father Laurence Brancati, librarian of the Vatican ; and, with their permission, was dedicated to the Congregation of Propaganda. It was translated into Latin, under the immediate inspection of Bossuet, by the Abbé de Fleury, the author of the invaluable History of the Church. The Abbé Lenglet du Fresnoy mentions (*Memoires d'Artigny*, tom. 1. p. 336. note 6.), that the celebrated M. Basnage assured him, that, in the opinion of Protestants, it had injured their cause more than all other Roman Catholic works of controversy, collectively taken. — It is much to be lamented that the English translation of it is very ill executed.’

A more minute detail perhaps was requisite than is here given of the conference which took place between Claude and Bossuet: since it exhibits to advantage the skill and ability of the former, and the good sense and high breeding which the Bishop seemed to have at command when struggling with an adversary who did not excite his jealousy. Why do not the same temper and decorum accompany him when the divine Fenelon is his antagonist? The dispute with the Protestant advocate exhibits little that can interest those readers of the present day who are conversant with such matters. Chillingworth has placed the controversy between the two communions on its true basis: but the arguments used at this conference wander from the real point in dispute.

‘ The *Histoire des Variations* is next noticed ; and Mr. Butler analyzes this work, which we think did not deserve such attention, and gives a summary of its contents. It should seem, from the following passage, that he is not sufficiently aware of the little dependence which ought to be placed on this exceptionable performance :

‘ There seems reason to believe, that, after the death of Manes, the European Manichees retreated, and carried their doctrines with them into the East ; that they made a second appearance in Europe, about the beginning of the ninth century ; that, under the various appellations of Paulicians, Albigenses, Waldenses, Hussites, Bohemians, Bogards, Brethren of the Free Spirit, Wickliffites, and Lollards, they and their disciples, during that and the three ensuing centuries, spread themselves over Europe ; that they diverged into sects, some of whom were hostile to the constituted authorities of the times, both

in church and state; and that, after various vicissitudes of fortune, the disciples of some of those sects finally triumphed, in the sixteenth century, in a considerable portion of Europe, and filled it with disorganizing principles, which were never wholly eradicated.'

Are the Waldenses, Hussites, Bohemians, Wickliffites, and Lollards, to be considered as European Manichees?

Whether Mr. Butler will obtain praise or censure from orthodox theologians for the following statement, we cannot presume to decide, but shall leave the point to be ascertained by the better judgment of our readers, and by the event:

'The fourteenth book of Bossuet's "*History of the Variations*" is particularly interesting, as he attempts to shew in it, by much curious and instructive evidence, a natural gravitation of every sect, which separates from the church of Rome, into Socinianism. Some time after Bossuet's "*History of the Variations*" made its appearance, he published his six eloquent Addresses to the French Protestants. In the last, he treats, at length, of this supposed Socinian tendency of the Reformation. He proves in it, from the confessions of the celebrated Jurieu, that, before the close of the seventeenth century, Socinianism abounded in the United Provinces; and that the dispersion of the French Huguenots, in consequence of the Edict of Nantes, revealed to the terrified reformers of the original school, the alarming secret of the preponderance of Socinianism, even in the reformed churches of France. The members of them, being, by Jurieu's account, no longer under the controul of the civil power, disseminated their Socinian principles, every where, with the greatest activity and success. Even in England, Jurieu pretended to discover the effect of their exertions. He mentions, that, in 1698, thirty-four French refugee ministers, residing in London, addressed a Letter to the Synod, then sitting in Amsterdam, in which they declared that Socinianism spread so rapidly, that, if the Ecclesiastical Assemblies applied no remedy to it, or used only palliatives, the evil would be incurable. — Of these lamentations of Jurieu, Bossuet avails himself with the greatest skill: — they brought Jurieu into great disgrace among his own brethren.

'It has often been observed, that contraries meet in their extremes. Two writers more contrary, in every sense of that word, to each other, than Bossuet and the late author of the "*Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*," cannot be mentioned: yet, in one of the most curious passages of that extraordinary work, Mr. Gibbon adopts and aggravates all these charges of Bossuet. (See ch. liv.)'

Were we not fully persuaded of the ingenuousness of the author, we should regard the design with which this passage was inserted as equivocal. Do the Catholic and the sceptic agree in declaring that those, who derive their faith from the Scriptures alone, naturally gravitate towards Socinianism? Is this a legitimate inference, if the authority of the church in construing the Scriptures be rejected? Will not the supporters

of that doctrine maintain that this united testimony operates strongly in their favour?—The seeming approbation, with which our candid author dismisses this most disingenuous work, not a little surprized us. Many years ago, we took up this renowned history, and commenced the perusal of it with the hope of being at once instructed and gratified, as we had been by all the other works of Bossuet which had fallen into our hands. We expected to be set right on many points, in consequence of the researches of a most able adversary: we were prepared to behold the untoward events which attended the Reformation exhibited in full day-light; and we concluded that the characters of the principal parties who engaged in it would not be spared, but that its errors and excesses would be exposed in a masterly manner: though the colouring might be heightened, and light and shade artfully disposed to serve the purposes of the writer. Our philosophy could have borne with all this: we had joined in the laugh which the pleasantries of Erasmus had raised against the marriage of Luther: Sleidan had not been able to conceal from us the mercenary and political motives of the German princes; we had wept over the fate of the incomparable More; we had shared in the abhorrence and indignation which the character and conduct of the violent Henry were calculated to inspire; and we had seen that the church of England was more the child of worldly policy than any of the communions which sprang from the Reformation. We were therefore not only prepared to listen to the observations of a wily opponent, but were desirous to make good use of the reproaches and gibes which we anticipated, and to profit by instructions which we expected to be served to us in no very palatable manner. In the Bishop of Meaux, we were aware that we should meet with an ardent partisan: but we gave him credit for a knowledge of human nature and a regard to his high literary reputation, and we did not then question his ingenuousness. Never was disappointment so entire, never did we feel such complete disgust, because we thought that we never had encountered so besotted a party-spirit, so total a disdain of the truth of history, such gross perversions of facts, and such continued wilful misrepresentations. The style and method seemed alone to belong to the famed author; while the spirit and substance of the work were worthy only of the humblest tool of the papacy, of a Mabillon or a Varillas.

Mr. Butler now gives an account of the conduct of this celebrated prelate in the general assembly of the Gallican church of 1682. Here we know not which most to admire, the extent of the Bishop's learning, the celerity of his measures, his ability and skill, or the weight of his character.

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The narrative of these proceedings forms a very interesting portion of this volume, and is composed in the author's best manner. The Declaration, so celebrated on account of its containing a spirited summary of the liberties of the Gallican church, which was published by this assembly, came from the pen of Bossuet, and consisted of four articles :

' The first article declares, that the power, which Jesus Christ has given to St. Peter and his successors, vicars of Christ, relates only to spiritual things, and those which concern salvation ; and not to things civil and temporal : so that, in temporals, kings and princes are not subject to the ecclesiastical power, and cannot, directly or indirectly, be deposed by the power of the keys ; or their subjects discharged, by it, from the obedience which they owe to their sovereigns, or from their oaths of allegiance.

' The second article declares, that the plenitude of the power, which resides in the Holy See and the successors of St. Peter, in respect to spiritual concerns, does not derogate from what the Council of Constance has defined, in its fourth and fifth sessions, on the superior authority of general councils.

' The third article declares, that the exercise of the apostolical power of the Holy See, should be governed by the Canons, which have been enacted by the Spirit of God, and are respected by all the Christian world ; and that the rules, customs and usages, received by the kingdom and churches of France, and approved by the Holy See, should be inviolably preserved.

' The fourth article declares, that, in questions of faith, the Pope has the principal authority, and that his decisions extend over the universal church, and each church in particular ; but that, unless they have the consent of the church, they are not irreformable.

' These articles passed unanimously, and the monarch was desired to publish them throughout his kingdom. He immediately issued an edict, by which, he ordered the Declaration to be registered by all the Parliaments, Bailliwick, Stewarties, Universities, and Faculties of Divinity and Canon Law, within his dominions. The edict forbad all persons, secular or regular, to write or teach any thing contrary to the Declaration ; and that no person should be appointed professor of Theology, who did not previously engage to teach no other doctrine.'

Even at this late period, the crown of France, in its dispute with Rome, was indebted to the efforts of a subject ; and Bossuet, on this occasion, took the part of his sovereign against the pretensions of the Roman pontiff. The times, it is true, had changed, and we cannot decide what a prelate so ambitious would have done had he lived in the days of Becket : it is not improbable that he would have viewed the controversy in a different light : but, at the epoch of which we are speaking, the French monarchy was in its meridian, and of the power of Rome the shadow alone remained.

If men will be dupes and fanatics, neither princes nor states ought to use compulsion or civil restraints with the hope of correcting them. Instruction, particularly early instruction, is the only legitimate method which should be adopted for that purpose. For a Catholic country, the concluding part of Mr. Butler's chapter might be appropriate : but, as it respects Protestant readers, we think it is wholly needless.

'The Pope's claim,' says Mr. Butler, 'to temporal power by divine right, has not perhaps at this time a single advocate : but the other articles of the Declaration are still a subject of dispute. It should be observed, that the members of the assembly never proposed to hold out their Declaration, as a decree respecting faith : they indeed considered it to be founded on the Scripture, on Tradition, on solid and unanswerable arguments, but still to be no more than an opinion. The Ultramontanes predicate the same of their tenets. Moderate men of neither side tax the opposite tenets with heresy or schism. Each considers his own and his adversary's doctrine on these points to be in the class of opinions on which the church has not yet pronounced, and which, therefore, any individual may conscientiously hold.'

With due submission to this writer, we conceive that the principles of the Ultramontanes (as they are here called) are so pregnant with absurdity and mischief, that the civil communities in which they are professed can owe their peace and tranquillity only to the insignificance of those who maintain such a doctrine, or the imbecility of the power to which such unworthy subjection is acknowledged. Oppressive as we deem it to be to withhold their civil rights from our Catholic fellow-subjects, let it not hence be concluded that we are less averse than the adversaries of these rights to the errors, the usurpations, and the fopperies with which the Roman church is chargeable. Our notions on that head proceed on a principle wholly different : we do not confine the enjoyment of civil rights to the profession of any religion.

The Bishop of Meaux defended the condemnation of the book of Jansenius, and at once evinced his address and exposed his ignorance in the controversy in which he had the imprudence to engage with the very learned Father Simôn. — Our limits do not permit us to follow Mr. Butler into various curious matters which belong to the life of Bossuet. We differ from him *toto celo* in what he says respecting the controversy between him and the incomparable Fenelon. In the former, we observe the mean jealousy and the rancorous persecution of an envious courtier : who in this business indubitably braved the restraints of religion, the dictates of justice, and the rules of honor. The whole of his conduct appears to have proceeded from the most furious resentment and the blindest passion :

passion : but his unaccountable demeanour doubtless appears the more odious from contrasting it, which we cannot help doing, with the almost super-human virtues and temper of his exalted adversary. *

Mr. Butler very properly introduces a short account of the death of Henrietta-Ann of England, which was necessary in order to set in its true light the unparalleled merit of the discourse which Bossuet pronounced on the occasion. After having read that composition, we can almost forgive the relentless persecutor and furious defamer of Fenelon. Many circumstances in the life of this celebrated prelate, the general turn of his public character, and especially his conduct towards the Archbishop of Cambray, would incline us to believe that he was wholly an artificial character, and merely acted a part. Impelled by many considerations to this conclusion, but placing before our eyes the times in which Bossuet lived, knowing how far self-delusion will carry men in injustice, and recollecting his incessant acts of devotion, we stop short, and set him down as one of those compounds of great, good, and bad qualities, in which description too many of the *leading characters* of the Christian church, as well confessors and martyrs as fathers and reformers, are to be ranked. No persons can estimate more highly the talents, attainments, and general ability of this prelate : but we own that, except in his closet, in the performance of his spiritual functions, and in his correspondence, we observe little of the spirit of the Christian or of the amiableness of the man. He condemned, we are here told, the persecutions which obscured the latter years of Louis XIV., which so deeply tarnished that monarch's reputation, and which, we believe, finally accomplished the ruin of his house.

We must forbear to notice the correspondence which passed between Bossuet, Molanus, and Leibnitz, for the purpose of effecting a re-union between the Roman and the reformed churches ; as well as all reference to numerous specimens of excellent criticism which are worthy of Bossuet, and which greatly add to the value of this publication. Let us, then, bring this article towards a close with a passage which, although it exhibits a dark spot in the reputation of Bossuet, yet on the whole furnishes gratifying information, while it shews the liberal and catholic spirit of his biographer :

‘ The revocation of the Edict of Nantes brought Bossuet's principles on Religious Liberty to the test. — The persecution of the Huguenots, which followed, (called from the dragoon troops em-

* See our late reviews of a valuable life of Fenelon, Appendixes to Vols. lvii. lviii. and lix. N. S. ; and Vol. lxiv. p. 330.

ployed in it, the Dragonade) — was condemned by the greatest and best men in France. M. d'Aguesseau, the father of the celebrated chancellor, resigned his office of intendant of Languedoc, rather than be a witness of it: his son repeatedly mentions it with abhorrence. Fenelon, Flechier, and Bossuet, confessedly the ornaments of the Gallican church, lamented it. To the utmost of their power, they prevented the execution of the edict, and softened its severities, when they could not prevent them.

' This practical condemnation of the resort to temporal power, in effecting religious conversion, does all these illustrious characters the greater honour, as the doctrine of religious toleration was, at that time, little understood. It is painful to add, that, in a studied letter, written to M. de Basville, intendant of Languedoc, (Ben. ed. Vol. X. p. 293.), Bossuet seems to admit, in theory, the general right of Christian princes to enforce acts of religious conformity, by wholesome severities; and thus allows them, for effecting a spiritual good, a resort to temporal means, which the Divine Founder of our faith so explicitly disclaimed for himself. Nothing, surely, can be more contrary than such a proceeding, to the precept of the Prince of the Apostles, (1 Ep. c. 3. v. 2.) which recommends "the leading of the fold of Christ to their pastures, according to the order established by God himself, that is, voluntarily, and never by compulsion."

We recommend this admirable text to the devout consideration of those pious crusaders, who make our pulpits ring with the accents of intolerance.

ART. IX. *Historical Inquiries concerning Forests and Forest-laws, with Topographical Remarks upon the ancient and modern State of the New Forest, in the County of Southampton.* By Percival Lewis, Esq., F.A.S. Large 4to. pp. 227. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Payne.

FROM the preface to this handsome volume, we learn that the author was induced to publish it by the attention which is generally bestowed on topographical works, and by considerations more directly relating to persons connected with the New Forest. 'Of late years, several attempts,' he says, 'have been made to alter and abridge the rights and privileges of the owners of estates within and adjoining the boundaries of the forest.' At first, it was his intention to confine his researches to the New Forest exclusively: but our different public acts, whether charters, ordinances, or acts of parliament, having a general application to the royal forests throughout the kingdom, he was induced to give to his labours somewhat of a more extended character. In his investigations for this purpose, his chief assistance was derived from the Reports of the Commissioners of Land-revenue; who, pursuing their inquiries under the

the sanction of parliament, had free access to the public records. Accordingly his work is chiefly composed of abstracts from these documents; and in a double appendix, the celebrated *Charta de Foresta* of Henry III. is inserted, together with most of the general statutes on the subject of forests which have been enacted from the Conquest to the Revolution.

In the days of the Anglo-Saxons, every freeholder appears to have had liberty to shoot game on his own ground, provided that he abstained from the royal forests. At the time of the Conquest, the King adopted the very convenient doctrine of regarding beasts of game as "*bona vacantia*," or property without an owner; and they were declared, therefore, to belong to the King, and to be objects of chase only to him or to those whom he might appoint. This tyrannical assumption was productive, in the course of time, of the most revolting oppression; large tracts of country being laid waste for the reception of game; and very severe penalties being attached to trespasses on the royal plantations. It deserves to be mentioned that the concessions stipulated in the *Charta de Foresta* were obtained with as much difficulty from the court as *Magna Charta* itself: partly, perhaps, because one of its principal clauses was that the killing of the King's deer should no longer be considered a capital offence, but be punished by the mitigated penalties of fine and imprisonment. While we are adverting to these barbarous enactments, it may be worth while to notice the process of "*expeditation*," (from *ex* and *pede*,) or, as it is termed, the "*lawing of dogs*:" which consisted in cutting off the claws of the fore feet, to prevent the animals from pursuing game. It seems to have been confined to mastives, and to have been in current use so lately as the end of the sixteenth century. In royal grants of antient date, it was common to specify that the dogs of the grantee should remain "*unexpeditated*."

At the present time, the chief utility of the royal forests to the public consists in their supply of timber; and, in the case of the New Forest, the facility of conveying timber to Portsmouth dock-yard renders that application of the trees a matter of great importance. Moreover, the oaks in this forest are particularly valuable for the purpose of making what ship-builders term the *knees* and *elbows* of men of war; a peculiarity which is owing to the circumstance of the trees generally extending their branches horizontally and irregularly, instead of growing in height, as is the case in a richer soil. Under these circumstances, it is mortifying to find (p.123,124) that the average supply to the navy from the New Forest has not exceeded 900 loads of timber; a stock equal to one-third only of the
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the quantity consumed in building a 74 gun-ship *. It farther appears, that the yearly contribution of the whole of the royal forests does not exceed 2,000 loads, or one-thirtieth part of the quantity required for the annual demands of our navy. Unfortunately, it is only of late years that the attention of government has been seriously drawn to this important subject; and such of the crown lands as, on survey, have been found fit for the growth of timber are not now re-let on the expiration of leases, but are reserved for the public use. Much, however, remains to be done to give full effect to the natural advantages of the New Forest. The emoluments of the under-keepers are derived from the sale of wood and the feeding of swine, both of which are directly detrimental to the growth and proper application of the timber. A general inclosure, likewise, is necessary to prevent persons, who live in the neighbourhood of the forest, from turning their cattle into it. A Board has been constituted during several years for the care of "woods and forests," at the head of which is Lord Glenbervie; and we sincerely hope that this Board will form a thorough contrast to their predecessors, very judicious plans having often been suggested for the improvement of the royal forests, "all of which," say the Commissioners of Land-revenue, "have failed from one cause — from their execution having been left to officers whose interest it was to counteract them." †

It is a remarkable circumstance that a great part of the oak which, during the last and the present war, has been consumed by our navy, was the produce of plantations made above a century ago. After the Restoration, planting was adopted both on public and private lands, as one of the means of repairing the desolation committed in the civil war. The oak requiring a century to arrive at maturity, and flourishing most on land that is valuable for other purposes, we may take it for granted that, in this particular, government will find it necessary to depart from the general rule of relying on individual management, and will be obliged to make a point of attending to the cultivation of their own forests. By dint of judicious regulations, it is perfectly practicable to establish in the parties a responsibility sufficient to prevent the abuses that generally attend on public concerns. How much they have prevailed in the case of the New Forest may be concluded from the subjoined account of the rapid decrease of its timber.

Extract from the Fifth Report of the Commissioners of Land-revenue, p. 23.

* Perring's Inquiry into the Decay of our Men of War, p. 12.

† Fifth Report, p. 28.

In the year 1608, the trees in the New Forest fit for the use of the navy were in number - - - 123,927

In 1707 - - - 12,476

In 1764, exertions having been made to correct the waste of timber, the number of trees fit for the navy amounted to 19,836

In 1783 - - - 12,447

The stock of beech-trees in the New Forest is much larger than that of oak; and a great number of them are annually cut down to satisfy the claims, or, as they are commonly called, the assignments, of fuel. This practice evidently requires alteration; and it would be expedient also to order the entire removal of the deer, as well as the abrogation of the custom of cutting fern, heath, and furze, throughout the forest. The principal officers of the New and other royal forests are

Lord Warden of the New Forest, Duke of York.

—, Deputy, Mr. Rose.

Chief Justice in Eyre, south of Trent, Mr. Thomas Grenville.

Surveyor-General of woods and forests, Lord Glenbervie.

These offices, with the exception of that of Lord Glenbervie, are mere sinecures; yet Mr. Grenville derives from his Chief Justiceship a salary of 3466l. a-year.

A map of the New Forest is prefixed to this volume, with a frontispiece emblematic of the local scenery. We cannot agree with the author (preface, p.5.) that such a subject was likely to interest 'the public at large;' and we do not see adequate cause for bringing forth a book, which is composed in a great measure of abstracts of acts of parliament, in the portly shape of a royal quarto. The compilation is, however, well executed, and likely to be useful to the persons who by situation are concerned in topics of this description.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1813.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 10. *Report on the Medicinal Effects of an aluminous Chalybeate Water*, lately discovered at Sandrocks, in the Parish of Chale, in the Isle of Wight, pointing out its Efficacy in the Walcheren and other Diseases incident to Soldiers who have served Abroad, and more particularly the Advantages to be derived from its Introduction into private Practice. By William Lempriere, M.D., Physician to the Forces at the Army Depôt. Royal 8vo. 5s. Boards. Murray, &c.

In our review of the Transactions of the Geological Society, (Rev. February 1812, p.137.) we gave an account of an admirable analysis, by Dr. Marcet, of an aluminous chalybeate spring, that

that had lately been discovered in the Isle of Wight. The powerful impregnation of the water pointed it out as likely to become valuable for medicinal purposes, and the work before us seems to prove that it possesses considerable efficacy. — The author commences by a description of the local situation of the spring and the appearance of the surrounding country, and then gives an account of the manner in which the water was first discovered, but which, we confess, does not appear to us either very interesting or very important. We have next a sensible letter from Dr. Saunders, stating his opinion as to the probable benefit to be expected from the water, and the result of some experience which he had of its use in diseases of the uterus. An extract from Dr. Marcet's analysis then succeeds, which brings us to the middle of the volume, and to the proper subject of it.

The most important properties of the water are derived from the large quantity of alum and iron which it holds in solution; and from the tonic and astringent properties which these ingredients may be supposed to impart, it seemed probable that the water would be useful in the cure of the chronic diseases of soldiers who had been debilitated or diseased by serving in hot and unhealthy climates. The author's office of physician to the army-depôt gave him an excellent opportunity of putting his conjecture to the test of experiment, and the following quotation presents an account of the result:

'For this purpose, sixty patients were selected, in whom the paroxysms of ague had been suspended by the means heretofore explained, but who were left in a state of great debility, and were constantly experiencing a relapse upon changes of the weather, or other casual circumstances. Many of these patients had taken steel pills with myrrh, very similar to those now directed in the new London Pharmacopœia, without producing any evident advantage; and others had been placed on a course of vegetable tonics, with as little good effect; so that they might be considered very fair subjects for a trial of the new remedy.

'In about three weeks, thirty-six of these patients were restored to health, and sent to their duty; eight were obliged to omit the water, viz. six in consequence of a relapse of their ague, one from a pulmonic attack, and one from being affected with sore throat; and sixteen continued the water, in a progressive state of recovery.

'In giving this water, I was very forcibly struck with the rapid effect it produced on the appetite and spirits, and the confidence it inspired in the mind of the patient. In the course of a few days, from the urgent solicitations of the sick, it was found necessary to add to their ordinary allowance of animal food and vegetables, a quarter of a pound of meat, and half a pound of potatoes; and with a view to recovery, each was ordered one pint of porter per diem.

'The improvement of the appetite was soon succeeded by an increase of strength and a return of the natural complexion; and the recovery of these patients evidently proved more permanent, than that of any of the other Walcheren cases sent out of hospital under a different mode of treatment.

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'The water did not appear to produce any immediate effect on the pulse, or skin, nor did it act particularly on the kidneys; its tendency to increase the appetite, and raise the spirits, was the only evident effect to be observed during the early course; and a return of strength and a general appearance of improved health, marked its latter progress.'

This account may perhaps be regarded as, in some measure, the partial statement of an advocate; and we must not be considered as doing any injustice to Dr. Lempriere, if we receive his reports of the efficacy of a new remedy with the same caution, which we always find it necessary to exercise on such occasions.—After his success in one class of diseases, the Doctor naturally extended the use of the water to others of a similar or analogous nature; and it seems to have been generally useful in all cases which depended on a general state of debility, with a relaxation of the muscular power and languor of the circulation.

Towards the conclusion, we have a very interesting sketch of a singular cachectic state of the body, which occurred to a considerable number of the military in the island of Trinidad, written by Dr. Skey, late of Barbadoes, under whose care the patients were placed previously to their removal to England. The disease appears to have been so singular in its symptoms, and the account of it, although short, is so judiciously drawn up, that we cannot but hope that Dr. Skey will be induced to favour the medical world with a more detailed report of it.

Art. 11. *Remarks on Baths; Water, Swimming, Shampooing, Heat, Hot, Cold and Vapor Baths.* By M. L. Este, Esq. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Gale and Co. 1812.

Like many other men of the medical profession, Mr. Este regrets that so strong and general a prejudice exists in this country against the use of the warm bath, and is very strenuous in his endeavours to counteract it. In his opinions we for the most part coincide: but we fear that his remarks will not have much effect on those who are not already convinced; since he supports his doctrine by that kind of flowery declamation, and that reference to loose and fanciful analogies, which form so common and at the same time so impotent a resource. He refers to the method in which the warm bath is employed in Egypt, as described by Savary; then enlarges on the pleasures and advantages of swimming, as detailed by Dr. Franklin; recommends it as an useful part of a military establishment; and suggests that, by a proper application of waters of different temperatures, or by their alternation with each other, the body may be strengthened, diseases prevented or relieved, and a great part of the matter rendered useless.

We have next a section on the virtues of water; which is recommended for the three properties of 'simple fluidity, universal use and miscibility with the animal juices.' The remarks on the — and of water will afford a sufficient specimen of the literary talents of Mr. Este:

'Miscibility with all the animal juices, except the — and per-
they are in their natural healthy state! Unfitness to dil

with them, when they are thickened by disease. In common life we lose sight of an important law of the animal œconomy, a condition to which all animal bodies are subject, viz. the tendency to induration and inspissation, as they advance in years. — The softer organs grow firm — those that are supple grow rigid. — The organs endowed at first with exquisite sensibility and high organization grow dull, while the relative quantity and specific gravity of bony substance are increasing in a rapid progressive ratio. This progress to induration, inspissation, dulness and insensibility, quickened by the use of fermented liquors, may in some degree be checked and counteracted by simple fluidity and dilution.

“ Aut *vinum* ne tange, aut *multa* protue *lymp̃ha* ;
Cum vino indulges, igni, puer, adjicis ignem.”

‘ Water attenuates and thereby facilitates excretion ; it has too a peculiar determination to the surface, and passes off by the cutaneous pores, in the shape of insensible transpiration, more speedily and plentifully than by the kidneys ; in consequence perhaps of its total want of irritation. It is, besides, the most commodious medium for applying to the human body two powerful agents, viz. heat and cold ; the one expanding and preserving pliant, the other contracting and constringing, all the soft organs and fluids of which our animal mechanism is constituted.

“ Si considerare volumus, quæ sit in natura *excellencia et dignitas*, — intelligemus, quam sit honestum, *parcè, continentèr, severè, sobriè, vivere.*”

We shall make one farther citation, in order to illustrate the manner in which the author employs the arguments from analogy in defence of his opinions. He is endeavouring to shew that heat has not necessarily a relaxing effect on the human body, and for this purpose makes the following remark :

‘ We cannot consider heat as relaxing, when we attend to the prodigious strength and luxuriance of the vegetation in the countries before mentioned, which prove its invigorating influence as manifestly, perhaps, as the magnificent race of the animals : for, as our motto states,

“ Ignis, naturis omnibus, salutarem impertit calorem.”

Art. 12. *New Diseases. The Rabies piratica*, its History, Symptoms, and Cure ; also, the *Furor Hippocraticus*, or Græco-mania, with its Treatment. By Bryan Crowther. 8vo. pp. 53. Printed for the Author.

from it appears that Mr. Copeland, in his edition of Mr. Ford's work add to hip-joint, attacked Mr. Crowther for having borrowed from quarter ord, without due acknowledgement. Mr. Crowther warmly with a vile charge, and in his turn severely criticizes some passages in diem. production of Mr. Ford and Mr. Copeland. As to the

‘ The in the controversy, it is perhaps not easy to decide ; we are crease of so think that Mr. Copeland may have been too hasty in his recovery of and some of Mr. Crowther's remarks seem to be not of any of the endation : but, although we may thus be the advocates of ferent mode of to a certain extent, we are obliged to add that he has entirely

entirely forfeited all claim to the support of his cause, by the improper style in which his pamphlet is written. It is a tissue of ribaldry and vulgar jokes, quite below the dignity of a man of any pretensions to science.

Art. 13. *Tirocinium Medicum*; or a Dissertation on the Duties of Youth apprenticed to the Medical Profession. By W. Chamberlaine, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. &c. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1812.

Mr. Chamberlaine writes like a person of experience, and like one who has some knowledge of the human character. He also exhibits a certain portion of wit, or rather humor; and, finally, he seems to understand the subject on which he treats. With these requisites, it may be expected that he should produce a work of some value, and that he should not treat on a topic without throwing some light on it. His Dissertation consists partly of advice to young men who are about to be apprenticed in an apothecary's shop, and partly of hints for the conduct of the master himself. Besides what may be called moral and economical precepts, which are generally very just and useful, we meet with much valuable matter concerning the minute detail of business, as it respects the more important points of the profession, and all the minor arrangements of the shop.

We have noticed the author's talent for humor, which is often very happily displayed in enforcing and illustrating his observations, and certainly renders them much more impressive than a mere didactic lesson. The wit is not, indeed, in all cases equally sound, and it may be considered as sometimes rather redundant: but we must admit that many parts are very characteristic. We shall select one or two short passages as specimens. In his advice to the master, Mr. Chamberlaine points out some of the methods by which he is liable to be defrauded by a dishonest apprentice:

'There is also (he adds) another source from which a dishonest apprentice can draw, occasionally, large supplies.

'Patients will frequently call to pay their bills in any part of the year, without waiting for having them sent in as usual at the year's end.—They are going off into the country, or to some foreign part of the world, in a hurry—not to return.—“How much is the money?—Never mind writing out the bill; but just tell me the amount.”

“Two pounds twelve.”—“Very well—there it is—you may save your stamp, for I cannot stop for a receipt—just cross it out.—My compliments to your master.—Good-bye.” The hopeful youth takes care *not* to cross out the bill—and of course, taking care also *not* to give credit in the proper book for the cash received, snugly pockets the whole of the money, without fear of detection.—Then, when the time of year comes for the bills to be sent round, and this patient's bill is put in the bundle with all the rest, it is of course returned with an indorsement, “*Gone away, not known where*”—and the employer sets it down as a lost debt.

We subjoin a description of an apprentice of an obstinate and perverse disposition; who, without committing any flagrant transgression, is always contriving to vex and tease his master:

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‘ Next to this doggedness of disposition, is the habit of making frivolous excuses, and the taking advantages of slight errors. For instance, if a master writes a memorandum of something to be done by the young man; not choosing to understand it, he will, when questioned why he neglected it, answer, “I thought you wrote it as a memorandum for yourself!”

‘ A medicine is written for at 8 o’clock A.M. for a child. Not sent at 7 in the evening. “I thought it would do better to-morrow, being Friday, because the former was taken on a Friday!!”

‘ *Aqu. Pluvialis*, in a prescription.

‘ “Why was this medicine neglected?”

‘ “I could not get any *rain water*?”

‘ “Why were not these twenty letters sent to the Twopenny Post Office?”

‘ *Ans.* “I thought you had more to write, and therefore waited.”

‘ “See, Sir, what you have done. These letters, that ought to have gone out at ten this morning, were for the purpose of calling a meeting on most important business, at TEN on *Monday forenoon*; and your *thoughting*, or more properly, your not thinking of it at all, has brought it to eight o’clock at night; this being *Saturday*, the letters will not be now delivered, until the hour of meeting on *Monday morning* is past!!”

‘ Mrs. G. complains that you have neglected to send the Tincture of Bark that she spoke for yesterday.

‘ *Ans.* “I had no Tincture of Bark filtered.”

‘ “Why had you not?”

‘ “Because I had no filtering paper!”

‘ A servant calls the *third* time for a Fomentation, for a patient in great agony.

‘ “Why was not this Fomentation done and sent?”

‘ “There was no fire to boil it.”

‘ “Why did you not cause the boy to light the fire, or request the cook to light one for you; or even light it yourself on so urgent an occasion?”

‘ “I had no vessel to boil it in.”

‘ “How so?”—“The old pipkin is broken.”

‘ “Why did you not buy another?”

‘ “I did not know *which shop to go to!!!*”

‘ “Why did you not ask the cook to lend you a vessel?”

‘ “The cook had her water on to wash her dishes!!!”

‘ Once that a master finds his pupil goes to playing cross purposes with him in this way, the best thing he can do is to get clear of him as soon as he can.’

All apothecaries, and their apprentices, might well employ a leisure hour in reading this volume, and adopting its advice.

Art. 14. *Physiological Reflections on the destructive Operation of spirituous and fermented Liquors on the Animal System.* By Thomas Forster, F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 57. Underwood.

We fear that the good intentions of Mr. Forster, in publishing this little tract, will not be answered by it, because it is unfortunately of that ambiguous character which does not appear completely adapted to any description

description of readers. Although the word *physiological* occurs in the title-page, we meet with really little or nothing which can deserve this appellation; since all that part, which was probably considered by the author as *reasoning*, is of too loose a texture to make any impression on a scientific mind. If there be any argument in the work, it is this; that, independently of specific disease, we are subject to a state of general derangement of the functions and powers of the animal frame, which is principally to be attributed to the habitual use of spirituous and fermented liquors. To the first of the positions, supported in this train of reasoning, we fully assent: but we do not find that the author has adduced any satisfactory proof of the second. The following paragraph contains the only evidence, that we can find, of the opinion that this deranged state of the general health depends on the cause which Mr. Forster assigns to it:

'Spirituous and fermented drinks afford a stimulus which is exhausting to the strength of the constitution, and which must therefore eventually terminate in weakness and irritation of the digestive viscera, and an imperfect performance of their functions. Such a state of visceral disorder will affect the brain, the nervous actions will become perverted and irregular; and, by this means, such a compound of weakness and irritation will be produced as I have spoken of above. Spirituous and fermented liquors may therefore be considered as having the most direct tendency to produce and aggravate a disordered state of the constitution, which becomes the exciting cause of other diseases.'

It has long been known that excess in the use of spirits tends to induce disease in the hepatic system; and hence Mr. F. concludes that the liver must be affected by the daily, although only moderate, use of all vinous or fermented liquors. On these data, the following superstructure is raised:

'Recent discoveries have shown how very generally the liver is disordered in phrenitis. Collateral evidence to this fact may be drawn from observing how often spirit drinkers incur that most tremendous malady. There are many persons, too, who have such excessive excitability, that a very small quantity of spirits creates in them a temporary but dangerous state of mental derangement. In more confirmed cases of insanity, the viscera are said usually to be much disordered. Sometimes such organic diseases of the brain are found, on examination after death, as visceral disorder would lead to. As an additional proof of the connection of madness with disorders of the chylopoietic viscera, I may remind the reader, that obstinate irregularities in the functions of the bowels have been observed to precede the death of maniacs. In cases of lunacy we must make allowance for the co-operation of adjunct causes. If, as appears then, a disordered state of the digestive functions, induced by spirituous liquors, be capable of exciting the sensorium in such a manner as to produce hypochondriacism, and melancholy, and to exasperate a predisposition to more determinate madness: if, too, other and various forms of neurosis depend on such a state of disorder; I think it may be rationally expected that a slighter degree of such disorder exists generally in persons who are the sport of inordinate enthusiasm and superstition.

tion, and who become the dupes of impious pretenders to divine inspiration.'

We cannot conclude these few remarks without observing how seldom a subject, that is intimately connected with the medical profession, is properly treated by any person who does not immediately belong to it. Such attempts are very rarely, if ever, sufficiently correct to be of any use to the man of science; while they contain too much technical matter to be interesting to the general reader.

POETRY.

Art. 15. *The Shannon and the Chesapeake*: a Poem. 8vo. 3s.
Cradock and Joy.

Though Homer has given a catalogue of the ships which conveyed troops to the siege of Troy, he does not appear to have been acquainted with the language of sailors; and the same assertion may be extended to the generality of poets of all ages and nations. The Muses, it will be said, delight more in woods, mountains, and streams of fresh water, than in "Neptune's salt wash." Here, however, is a poet who appears to be well versed in the naval nomenclature, and is qualified for describing in appropriate terms the gallant action between the Shannon and the Chesapeake frigates, which gloriously terminated in the capture of the American. To British readers, this poem will come recommended by its subject; and, both for its exact description of the action and for poetic energy, it is not undeserving of commendation. The writer exults in our dominion of the main, and predicts its perpetuity. Capt. Broke stated in his dispatches that the Chesapeake was carried by boarding, and this circumstance is thus described by the present bard:

“ And hark the *bleeding boatswain's* call,
“ Boarders aweigh there! Boarders all!
Up man and boy! for at our head,
Our noble Captain stands to lead.”—
Instant the simple column's form'd,
Instant the CHESAPEAKE is storm'd,
And 'midst her final broadside's roar,
Veil'd in a cloud of smoke,
The SHANNONS o'er her quarter pour,
Led on by fearless BROKE;
By many a thrust though sorely gored
From long protended pike,
Their only weapon is the sword;
“ Britons strike home!” is still the word,
Like Britons home they strike
At foes to keep their posts persisting,
Severely wounded still resisting,
Nor deigning in the fatal strife,
To yield an inch but with their life.’

The expression *bleeding boatswain* refers to the circumstance of the Shannon's boatswain being severely wounded, yet continuing to do his duty. Capt. Broke's wound and its consequences are thus related:

' 'Tis the last charge! — But ah, that stroke!
Turn'd is the scale of Fate?

Columbia deems that fallen is **BROKE**.

For her he falls too late!

Fierce as the tigress for her young,

The lion o'er the prey,

His warriors trample down the throng

That rashly dare to stay;

Resolved in hot and furious mood,

That each devoted foeman's blood

Should price of vengeance pay:—

And, but their chief their ire restrain'd,

With floods of hostile gore had stain'd

The glories of the day.

' Proud o'er the constellated field

The Union floats sublime!

To Britons must Columbia yield,

As now to latest time;

And as they bold their course resume

Along her humbled shore,

Her eagle cowers with ruffled plume,

Scared at the lion's roar:

While Nova-Scotia's joyful coast

Salutes her darling pride and boast,

And echoes to the skies,

In acclamations far prolonged,

From all her points and headlands thronged,

"The SHANNON and her prize!"

Art. 16. *Woburn-Abbey Georgics; or the Last-Gathering*. A Poem, in four Cantos. Canto I. and II. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Chapple. 1813.

An attempt to place in a ludicrous point of view the Woburn-Abbey Agricultural Exhibitions, which, it is intimated, are not to be repeated, in consequence of certain *resistless* persuasions addressed, during a *boudoir*-interview, by the Duchess to her 'uxorious' husband. The journey from town of the several amateurs is related with some humour; and, when the shew at the Abbey commences, the Smithfield-muse is properly invoked:

' To business now. Come, Smithfield muse!

Thy spirit o'er my song diffuse,

Drink deep of Sam's intire:

I sing the works of thine own club;

Whom Pres, and Vice, and Soc, they dub,

Who lift the ax, or rince the tub,

The breeder, feeder, 'squire.'

The poet drags in Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. and Sir Humphrey Davy, Knight, to make additional sport on the occasion. The latter occupies a conspicuous figure on the satirical canvas, and is represented as displaying a machine for grinding old walls into brick-dust as manure for land:

- “ Yon vast circumference of walls,
Which all this fair domain enthral,
Were it to brick-dust ground,
A cubic yard would dress a rood ;
The hassoc-swamp thus soon grow good ;
And pales of fir, or other wood,
Might well the park surround.
- “ It happen’d, when at old Dundee,
That ancient lady I should see,
So famous for the huge plum tree
That cumber’d her behind ;
Her kiln-dried grits, in mill or querne,
She did with little handle turn,
And all to oatmeal grind.
- “ The hint, at once, my genius caught ;
And, pregnant with the novel thought,
I summon’d to my aid
Mill-wrights and engineers, a train :
The model for their work was plain ;
Not to succeed, were want of brain,
Behold the engine made !
- “ Now, to its work.” Each bull they took,
And fasten’d to a lever-spoke ;
Then, on their hides, the goad-boy strook,
And round the axle twirl’d.
In piles the brick-bat grist was rais’d ;
Which John Le Blast in scuttle seiz’d,
And o’er the hopper hurl’d.
- “ But, ah ! alas, for John Le Blast !
The loaded hopper prov’d not fast :
O’er-balanc’d from the top,
Hopper and scuttle tumbled both ;
Brick-bats, Le Blast, and many an oath,
Which to record my muse is lothe,
Were heard and seen to drop.’

The humour of this piece, besides being ill-directed, does not move on “the light fantastic toe,” but is of heavy character.

Art. 17. *The Death of Prince Bagration* ; or the French defeated in Russia and Poland, in 1812 and 1813. A Poem by the Rev. R. Patrick, A.M., &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Ovid, in his description of the Palace of the Sun, says, *Materiam superabat opus* : but here the observation must be reversed, since the materials of the poem are superior to the workmanship. Mr. Patfick exhibits the Death-song of Prince Bagration, who fell in the sanguinary battle of Berodino, in careless and irregular English poetry. He seems to think that his indignation of French invasion and atrocity will atone for many poetical sins both of omission and commission, and therefore hurries on his description of the disasters of the French in their late winter-campaign in Russia ; persuaded that the prophetic

view, which he supposes Prince Bagration to take of the ruin that befell the invaders of his country, would be gratifying in spite of its want of finish as poetry. The particulars of the sufferings of the French army in their retreat are copied from the Russian bulletins; and the verse shall speak for itself:

‘ Oh! flight, full of revenge
To Russia’s shepherds sweet!
Oh! hail-fraught storms of showery snow,
Pouring from angry Heav’n,
Righteous your vengeance on the crest-fall’n foe,
And just and most complete!
Turn, tyrant, turn thy savage eye
And see thy blood-hounds fell,
(So lately “ fierce as furies, terrible as Hell;”)
In *their own* blood they lie!
Yes, atheist host of France!
Thy daring blasphemies had reach’d
The sov’reign Ruler of the sky:
Struck by Jehovah’s arm ye sicken and ye die.’

‘ And he, the fiercest tyrant of the west,
Who “ swims to empire thro’ a purple flood,”
(For such is Heaven’s behest,)
Welt’ring in blood
A second proud Senacherib shall die;
Such the well-measur’d doom, and well-earn’d fate
This second Tamerlane, this Attila shall wait:
Nay, France herself “ shall rise, and at a blow
Crush the dire author of” all Europe’s woe.’

‘ But happier far my Russia’s fate from thine,
Degenerate child of freeborn’s Corsic’s clime,
And happier far *our* hardy host
Than *thy* appall’d disorganized line,
So shatter’d, (erst so proud;)
Thro’ thy disorganized camps
No voice was heard to spread,
But voice of curses loud upon the tyrant’s head.’

To Bagration’s visions in the hour of death, is added the Dirge over his remains, as performed by the Russian priests. This is very orthodox and pious: but the Song of Moses and the Lamb does not harmonize with the horrors of war.

Art. 18. *Gaul, King of Ragab.* A tragic Drama, in three Parts.
12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Rickman. 1813.

A short preface states that this Drama is ‘ the first effort of an infant muse on the side of religion and virtue:’ but it will be found, on the most superficial survey, to be a covert attempt to slur the characters of Samuel and David; the former being charged with insolent priestcraft and with palming his pride on heaven, the latter with ambition and rebellion. Gaul, in this Drama, represents Saul; Samel, Samuel; Ralzid, David; Zara; Michal; Algar, Agag;

and Addo, the reputed magician, is substituted for the witch of Endor. The plan is said to be taken from a play written by Voltaire, and its tendency bespeaks its infidel-author. Gaul is placed before us as a noble, humane, generous, character; and his kindness to the captive Algar is applauded by all but Samel, who rushes into his presence, accompanied by twelve priests, each bearing an axe, and, upbraiding the monarch's clemency, chops poor Algar to pieces. After this holy butchery, Samel offers the king his ghostly advice:

'Thou prince, learn this — wouldst thou be truly wise
Never again the sacred priests despise.'

Ralzid, in league with Samel, aspires to the crown of his father-in-law; and, being sure of the support of the priest, he exclaims,

'Presumptuous Gaul! figh'tst 'gainst fearful odds,
Opposed to thee are Samel and the gods.'

Zara reproaches her husband with ingratitude, and thus addresses him:

'The wicked maxims of the priest unlearn,
To truth, to Zara, to thyself return:'

but all in vain; Ralzid will try for his father-in-law's crown.

Before the battle, Addo is consulted by Gaul in disguise; who, speaking of his conduct respecting Agag, very modestly says,

'Tis true he erred — but 'twas on mercy's side.'

Addo, glancing at the priest who pretended to act the savage under the sanction of Heaven, replies:

'Success attend him, — shame his bosom sting
Who on the bloody mission urged the king.
From haunts of men be that impostor driven
Who thinks humanity incenses Heaven.'

This sentiment is good: but the Drama, as a drama, is defective in the extreme, and below the serious notice of criticism.

Art. 19. *The Wanderings of Woe, or Conjugal Affection.* A Tribute to the Memory of a beloved Wife. With an Appendix, containing the Wrongs of the Academical Clergy, &c. &c. By the Rev. James Cox, D.D., of Wadham College, Oxford, and Master of Gainsborough School. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Mawman, &c. 1813.

It has often been asserted that, under the paroxysms of violent grief, genius is paralyzed; and that the mind must in some degree recover its tone, before the Muse can be courted as a refuge from or assuager of sorrow. Dr. Cox may be adduced as an evidence to the contrary. The bitterness of his affliction for the death of his wife was so extreme, that he very ingenuously 'confesses, that he has not been able to conduct himself with that submission to the will of the Divine Being, which one of his profession in particular ought to have evinced;' yet the first piece in this collection, intitled *The Dirge*, and addressed to Eliza in Heaven, was written *before the body was interred*. It is more doleful than poetical; and even considering the circumstances

circumstances of the case, we must be surprized that Dr. Cox, as a school-master, should forget his grammar in the following couplet :

‘ Sick of the hollow world, in thy pure breast
I found that solid friendship *they* profess’d.’

The Doctor, however, is not all gloom. He sees one little speck of light, and then adds,

‘ ’Tis but a speck, and yet the sparks expand,
Now, like Elijah’s cloud, big as my hand.’

If the composition of such lines could afford comfort to the writer in his grief, we fear that the publication of them will not be regarded as any great compliment to the memory of the departed. Such a Dirge, written before the body was interred, should have been interred with the body.

In the Wanderings of Woe, Dr. Cox adopts the solemn march of blank verse : but, instead of confining himself to lamentation, he digresses into the lashing strain, and enters into descriptions that are much too low for the dignity of satire. He fails also when he tries to be pathetic. From a woe-worn wanderer, who is so overwhelmed with grief that he can scarcely submit to the decree of Providence, could we expect such samples of poetry as those which follow ?

‘ Off from his shaving skips the barber, buys
On time the proffer’d corn — sells it unseen,
Swearing ten thousand lies — all’s fair in trade,
And pockets a clear hundred — thus becomes
A *Merchant*, has his hot-house, pineries,
And lawns ; his hunter, curricule, and gig :
Lays down the law at market-tables — soon
Expects to be “ His Worship.” Traffic vile !
Curs’d speculation, which thus feeds the drone
On the bee’s hard toil, then burns him, hive and all.’

The man-milliner is thus exhibited :

‘ Hast thou e’er seen the coxcomb magpie strut
Among a troop of finches ? On one leg
Hops he, and chatters, knowing looks, and thinks
Himself a clever fellow. So yon thing
Of gender epicene, so spruce, that twirls
The ribbon featly, spreads the counter’s plane
With feminine habiliments, and smirks,
And prates, in language just like Mag’s, — “ Yes, Mem,
This flannel fits the shape. Invisible
We call it, Mem, — that is, Mem, — can’t be seen :
These stockings, Mem, are beautiful, — and fine
As fine. ’Pon honour, Mem, they’re cheap as dirt.”
The country-girl, that stands behind, and peeps
Between her bolder sister’s arms, a blush
On this cheek and on that a simper wears,
Doubting the creature’s sex, and fears to ask
The needful question. — Wante ye, Rulers, food

For

For gun-powder? Here, then, supply your wants.
 Ye press-gangs, and recruiting serjeants, lead
 Them to the Frenchman's maw, instead of frogs.'

These sketches belong more to farce than tragedy, and are rather wanderings from than of woe.

The prose-essays, which form the appendix, are not sufficiently laboured to require much notice. That which is intitled *The Wrongs of the Academical Clergy* reprobates the practice of giving livings to persons who have not graduated at one of our Universities. Dr. C. is certainly in the right when he urges the necessity of a previous education for a man who is to undertake a cure of souls: but if, as he is fully aware, a student at the University may keep his terms without acquiring the knowledge and habits that are adapted to one who is to assume the clerical character, the academical clergy cannot be represented as wronged because they do not monopolize all the livings in the church.

MATHEMATICS and GEOGRAPHY.

Art. 20. *A Treatise of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, in Theory and Practice.* Adapted to the Use of Students. Extracted mostly from similar Works of Ludlam, Playfair, Vince, and Bonnycastle. By F. Nichols, Member of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, and of the American Philosophical Society. 8vo. pp. 128. Printed at Philadelphia. 1811.

It is candidly acknowledged by the compiler of this short treatise that no part of it, strictly speaking, is new or original; and he claims only the merit of reducing within a small compass, by means of a judicious selection from the writings of others on these subjects, all that is necessary for the purposes of life, and for those persons to know who have not time, ability, or inclination, to enter deeply into curious and difficult speculations.

In the preface (p. ix.) he names the authors from whom he has extracted, and truly states that, in the third section of his plane trigonometry, he has fully explained and demonstrated the changes in the algebraic signs of the trigonometrical lines, as well as their principal geometrical properties. This section certainly ought to be read with attention by those who intend to prosecute the study of mathematics, since a knowledge of what is contained in it is necessary in the solution of various physical problems, and in many parts of mechanical philosophy. At the end of it, is a table of the most useful trigonometrical formulæ.

Mr. Nichols not only delivers, in his spherical trigonometry, the propositions usually given by the best writers on the subject, but also Lord Napier's rules by means of the Circular Parts; and his solutions of all the cases, both of plane and spherical triangles, are illustrated by a variety of numerical examples, as well as the mensuration of heights and distances of terrestrial objects.

In the appendix, p. 126. l. 12. is an error not noticed in the list of corrections. Instead of $39.8 : 320 :: 1' : 8''$, it ought to be $39.8 : 320 :: 1'' : 8''$. In the next page, are two very good rules, which the author says were communicated to him by Joseph Clay, Esq. one of which is for finding the logarithmic sine or tangent of any small

small arc containing seconds; and the other for finding the arc itself, the logarithmic sign or tangent of it being given.

Art. 21. *An Abridgment of a Compend of Geography*, containing a concise Description of the different Countries of the World. Compiled from the best modern Travels. Also, a compendious View of the Solar System. For the Use of Schools. By F. Nichols. 12mo. pp. 154. Printed at Philadelphia. 1811.

We cannot speak so favourably of this compilation as of another work by the same author, mentioned in the preceding article; for this is certainly a very meagre and scanty compend both of geography and astronomy. Mr. Nichols's descriptions are so very concise as scarcely to deserve the name: yet, compendious as they are, some of them are far from being correct. For instance, though he allows only two pages to the description of British America, he greatly over-rates the number of inhabitants in Halifax; and he says that Quebec stands on the north-west branch of the St. Lawrence, though, in fact, it stands on that river itself, on the right bank in going up the river. It has no island opposite to it: but this immense stream narrows so much at that part as not to exceed a mile in breadth, thus occasioning a very strong current.

To the astronomical part is subjoined a short appendix, containing a table of the mean distances of the planets from the sun, the time of their revolutions, their diurnal rotations, and their diameters; and also the population of the United States, from a census taken in 1810, which made it amount to 7,299,993.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 22. *The Fasts and Festivals of the Church of England*, abridged from the Works of the excellent and pious Mr. Nelson, interspersed with Dialogue adapted to the Capacity of Youth. By Elizabeth Belson. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Newman and Co.

Taking the most essential passages which occur in Mr. Nelson's diffuse account of the Fasts and Festivals appointed to be observed in our national church, Miss Belson has interwoven them in a dialogue supposed to have been sustained by a mother with her two children, a son and a daughter, for whose religious education the parent expresses a becoming solicitude. With the explanatory matter respecting Saints' days, &c. she takes every opportunity of blending moral admonition, and puts questions relative to geography, chronology, &c., endeavouring throughout to make her abridgment instructive.

In treating of the Saints and their history, she "gets over the ground" tolerably well: but, when St. Michael and the angels call for notice, she seems to feel rather embarrassed, and not even good Mr. Nelson can extricate her from the difficulty. The mention of the archangel by the mother makes her son George think of spirits, and ask whether any are now to be seen? To this question the following very unsatisfactory answer is given:

"I believe every thing possible to God, whose wonders are never ceasing. Your question, my dear boy, is somewhat beyond my powers of reasoning; for my own part, I cannot doubt that if such visions are ever seen by mortals in this sublunary state, they are more
the

the effect of a troubled imagination, than a real perception. Conscience, which, in cases of guilt, is a never-ceasing scourge, may, on the mind weighed down by secret errors, effect a lowness and timidity, that occasions fear, where no fear is ; while it is equally observable, that the innocent (generally speaking) are strangers to fear. Yet suppose not, my dear George, that I would have the courage to refute all that has been said on this subject ; many persons, whose judgments need no comment, have sanctioned the belief ; but as I consider an impression of this sort very injurious to that vigour of mind, and personal activity, which it would gratify me to see my children possess, I am most anxious that they should divest themselves of such a feeling ; and may the innocence of their hearts, through every stage of their lives, be as conspicuous as at present ; thus admitting the consoling hope, that in believing what is revealed, they do the will of their Maker, humbly submitting themselves to his pleasure, whose " service is perfect freedom."

Fortunately for the mother, in this dilemma, her son George diverges to the evils of a bad conscience, and tells a story about breaking a neighbour's window and then running away : but the question concerning spirits is not resumed. As *addenda**, some notes explanatory of terms are subjoined at the end of the dialogue : but we cannot say that they are all accurate ; though we will not enter the lists with Miss B. as an annotator. It is sufficient for us to report that this work will be found useful to those for whose benefit it is intended, and that didactic dryness is obviated by the method which the compiler has adopted.

Art. 23. *Conferences between the Danish Christian Missionaries, resident at Tranquebar, and the Heathen Natives of Hindoostan*, now first rendered into English from the original Manuscript.

By an Officer in the Service of the Honourable East India Company. 12mo. pp. 220. 6s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1812.

A cunning heretic, or infidel, has here attempted to throw a broad glare of ridicule over that fashionable missionary-zeal, which aims at the conversion of the seventy millions of native inhabitants of our possessions in the East. In three conferences of Danish Missionaries, supposed to have taken place, 1st, with the common people of Malabar, 2dly, with the Brahmans, and, 3dly, with the Mohammedans, the author endeavours to shew how little prospect of success presents itself, in any attempt to convert them to what is termed the *orthodox* Christian faith. Each conference exhibits the natives of India rather as triumphing over than yielding to the missionaries ; who, when pressed by the arguments of the Hindoos, supply their want of logic by the con-

* One of our acquaintance, who belongs to the *Society of Friends*, and who had turned over the pages of Miss Belson, remarked that the writer, in her *addenda*, had omitted a note more important than all those which she had inserted ; for, said he, " she has omitted to tell us that this long string of Festivals and Fasts are *addenda* to Christianity ; since from the first verse in Matthew to the last in the Revelation, no hint or direction is given for the observance of any one of them."

venient threat of everlasting damnation, fulminated on these obstinate unbelievers. The doctrines of original sin, atonement, election, and the Trinity, are placed in the most revolting point of view; the author meaning to impress the reader with a persuasion of the utter impossibility of bringing either Hindoos or Mohammedans to embrace any creed which contains them. A confession having been drawn from the missionaries, that the devil was very active in Denmark, one of the Malabarian people desires them to shew their power over the devil by banishing him from their own country, before they opened a campaign against him in India.

In their conference with the Brahmins, the missionaries make a miserable figure. When the latter require of the former a belief in original sin, and satisfaction to God by the death of Christ, the Brahmins protest against these doctrines as incomprehensible and contradictory:

‘You say,’ observes a Brahmin to the Missionaries, ‘that God, after having cursed all the world, which he had just made, on account of the eating of this fruit, would accept of no other atonement to appease his wrath, but the blood of his own and only Son, as if it were possible for that to afford any gratification to a parent.’

Undismayed by their want of success with the Brahmins, the missionaries, in the last conference, press this doctrine on the Mohammedans, but with no better effect.

‘Now for myself (said one of the Mohammedans) I cannot comprehend that part of your doctrine, on which you appear to lay so great a stress — *viz.* that God cursed all the world, which he had just made; and that his only Son was killed to appease his anger, and atone for the sins of mankind! — This I cannot understand, for this surely was not the way to redeem the world from the effect of God’s curse.’

‘Against the doctrine of the Trinity, the followers of Mohammed are known to have the most rooted objection, it being expressly condemned in the Koran; yet these missionaries will try to convert Mohammedans to this belief: but the trial only overwhelms them with the ridicule and contempt of those whom they strive to convert. This is the reply of one of the Mohammedans:

‘Well, Sirs! if you can once bring yourselves to believe that God is man, and man is God; and that three are one, and one three — if you consent to believe this, although you acknowledge that you do not understand it — there can be no doubt but that you may find arguments and testimonies sufficiently plausible in your own estimation, to defend it: and your sacred books will be cited in support of it, although their authors, Moses or Christ, knew nothing of the matter.’

A strain of grave irony prevails in the dedication and introduction, and the design of every part of this little volume is to shew that the orthodoxy of Europe is not likely to be received as orthodoxy in Asia. It is clearly the opinion of the author of these imaginary conferences, that, as we have no chance of bringing Hindoos and Mohammedans to adopt our speculative articles of belief, the object of missions to the East is altogether hopeless, and we had best allow the native inhabitants to go to heaven in their own way.

Art.

Art. 24. *A Portraiture of Primitive Quakerism*; by William Penn. With a modern Sketch of reputed Orthodoxy, and real Intolerance. By Ratcliff Monthly Meeting. 8vo. pp. 50. Cradock and Joy. 1812.

"All things change," we are told; and the object of this pamphlet is to shew that *modern* Quakerism has deviated from *primitive* Quakerism. The Society of Friends having never established a creed, it is not easy for persons like ourselves, who are out of its pale, fully to enter into the merits of those disputes about orthodoxy and heterodoxy which convulse the modern fraternity, and seem to impeach its liberal spirit. The excommunication of the Quaker-church, mildly termed *Disownment*, has been pronounced on Mr. Thomas Foster, the editor of this publication, for his avowal (or rather supposed avowal) of the sentiments of the Unitarians, respecting the person of Christ, the atonement or satisfaction, and imputative righteousness; and though, from not being acquainted with the rules and regulations of the conclave of Quakerism, we shall abstain from any decided opinion on the justice or policy of this apparently intolerant measure, we shall venture to observe that the extracts here given from the "*Sandy Foundation Shaken*" prove to a demonstration that Thomas Foster is not more an Unitarian than was William Penn, the apostle and founder of Quakerism. No modern ever expressed himself with greater emphasis against the doctrines of the Trinity, of satisfaction, and of imputed righteousness, than William Penn has done. We shall exhibit a specimen of his mode of combating each of these doctrines. — Arguing against the Trinity, he says, "Since the Father is God, the Son is God, and the Spirit is God, then, unless the Father, Son, and Spirit, are three distinct nothings, they must be three distinct substances, and consequently three distinct Gods."

The doctrine of the satisfaction of Divine justice, by the merits of the second person of the Trinity, is reprobated by William Penn as contrary to the universal testimony of Scripture, and pregnant with the most palpable absurdities.

"For God so loved the world, that He gave his only-begotten Son, that whosoever believeth in him should not perish, but have everlasting life." [By which it appears that God's love is not the effect of Christ's satisfaction; but that Christ is the proper gift and effect of God's love.] — 'This doctrine of satisfaction is altogether inconsistent with the dignity of God;' — 'it represents the finite and impotent creature more capable of extending mercy and forgiveness than the infinite and omnipotent Creator;' — 'it divides the unity of the Godhead by two distinct acts, of being offended and not offended;' — 'it represents the Son more kind and compassionate than the Father;' — and 'if God's justice is satisfied for sins past, present, and to come, God and Christ have lost both the power of enjoining godliness and all prerogative of punishing disobedience.'

Against the possibility of an imputed righteousness, William Penn employs this argument, among many others:

'It renders a man justified and condemned, dead and alive, redeemed and not redeemed, at the same time; the one by an imputative righteousness, the other by a personal unrighteousness.'

We

We have made the above extracts for the purpose of asking the modern fraternity of Quakers, whether these sentiments of William Penn be those which are professed by his present followers; and if the doctrines of the "Sandy Foundation Shaken" still remain portions of their creed, on what ground in reason or common justice can they disown or reject Thomas Foster, or any other person, on the plea of his being an Unitarian? We have no other motive for putting this question to them in a public manner, than the wish of seeing the Society of Friends, for whom we have always felt a sincere esteem, act with consistency, and a sacred reverence for "that liberty where-with Christ has made us free."

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 25. *The New Pocket Cyclopædia; or, Elements of useful Knowledge, methodically arranged: with Lists of select Books on every important Subject of Learning and Science; designed for the higher Classes in Schools, and for young Persons in general.* By John Millard, Assistant-Librarian of the Surrey Institution. Second Edition, with many important Additions and Corrections. 8vo. pp. 660. 9s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1813.

On the appearance of the first edition of this performance, we stated our opinion of its plan, and of the manner in which we conceived that it had been executed. We have now only to add that the whole appears to have undergone a careful revision; that some of the most material mistakes are corrected; that various articles, particularly those of *Chronology, Manufactures, Military and Naval Tactics, &c.*, have been considerably enlarged; and that the lists of select books which treat of the respective subjects have been amended and improved.

Art. 26. *Fund of Mercy; or an Institution for the Relief and Employment of destitute and forlorn Females.* 8vo. Pamphlet, Printed by the Philanthropic Society. 1813.

It is here stated that, taking the lowest calculation, the number of common prostitutes in the metropolis is 25,000; and that all those excellent institutions, which have been formed with a view to reclaim them, contain only 244 women: it is therefore proposed to make farther provision for those females who are desirous of forsaking their vicious courses, and also to employ means for preventing recruits from entering the ranks of prostitution. All attempts to promote penitence in the fallen, or to break the snare of those who are in danger of seduction, are worthy of praise, and to a certain extent these efforts may be successful: but we fear that the cause of this evil lies deeper than it is generally imagined; and that the state of society must be completely altered before the temperance and sobriety of old times will return. Populous cities in opulent and luxurious nations are and will be hot-beds of vice.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 27. *The British Christian's Duty to make Prayers and Supplications for the King in the Day of trouble.* From Psalm xx. 1—4. Preached

Preached at St. John's, Southwark, and St. Mary-le-Bow, October 25. 1812, being the Anniversary of his Majesty's Accession to the Throne. By the Rev. William Jarvis Abdy, A.M. Rector of St. John's, Southwark, &c. 8vo. 1s. Gale and Co. To enforce the object of the preacher in this pious and loyal discourse, and to induce his hearers to sympathize with their suffering monarch, the virtues of the King are very properly enumerated. 'Look,' says Mr. Abdy, 'around the world, my brethren, among those, who now, or within your memory, have governed the nations of the earth, and where can you find one who so well deserves the dignified character of a man after God's own heart, as he who for two-and-fifty years has sat on the throne of Britain?'

A good king deserves the prayers of his people, and Mr. Abdy has discharged that duty which he owed to his afflicted sovereign: but the adoption of Bishop Horne's idea, that the prayers for David in the text were also prophecies of Christ, is no proof of sound judgment.

Art. 28. Preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Asaph, at the General Ordination held by the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of St. Asaph, July 19th, 1812. By John Jones, M.A. Vicar of Llanilin, and Curate of Wrexham. 4to. Walker.

Great stress has often been laid on 'the regular transmission of the priesthood from age to age:' but we could never see in what this transmission differs from the succession of one person after another to any civil office. To different stations in the church and in the government, as one person dies another is appointed; and thus, as Dr. Johnson used to say, "nobody is missed." The priesthood, however, being a very important and useful institution, it is of great moment that the clergy, while they occupy their stations, should conscientiously perform the duties which devolve on them. Mr. Jones's exhortations are well calculated to stimulate their exertions; and he very judiciously urges the necessity of their setting a good example, and of studying to impress on all a deep sense of the obligations of religion.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The letter from a *Friend* in Ireland is received, and the book is procured.

Vetus may rest contented. We shall never desert the cause which he espouses, and consequently shall never forget him.

X. Y. will be gratified as soon as may be: but we have not yet attained the art of "putting a quart into a pint bottle."

* * * The APPENDIX to the last Volume of the M. R. was published on the first of October, with the Number for September.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1813.

ART. I. *A Historical Tour through Pembrokeshire.* By Richard Fenton, Esq., F.A.S. 4to. pp. 662. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

A COUNTY-TOUR, performed by a native and a professed antiquary, will furnish ample materials for a county-history, if not in a great measure supersede the necessity of such an undertaking. The epithet *historical*, which Mr. Fenton has prefixed to his tour, and to which he might have added that of *antiquarian*, prevents us from classing it with those superficial publications which are the result of hasty excursions through certain districts, and in which little more is noticed than objects that immediately meet the eye. To look into "the dark backwards and abysm of time," to explore the state of the country and of its inhabitants in remote periods of its history, to recall to observation persons and events over which oblivion seems to have spread her veil, to throw light on the vestiges of antiquity, and to trace the changes which time in the revolutions of centuries has effected, would be a labour from which the ordinary rambler would shrink, but which the *historical tourist* imposes on himself as a positive duty. By this compound appellation, he enjoys a double office. As a tourist, he is required to depict *things as they are*; while as an historian he marches over the ample theatre of the past, and his *dramatis persone* consist of the illustrious dead. Mr. Fenton has executed this two-fold task with considerable address; having combined picturesque description and accounts of local scenery with antiquarian research, so as to make the reader acquainted both with the present and the antient state of the county which he undertakes to explore. His iters, or excursions, are so managed that every thing of importance in Pembrokeshire regularly falls under his observation; viz. its towns, harbours, estuaries, and rivers; its Roman encampments and stations; its churches and castles; the mansions of its nobles and great landed proprietors; the relics which it displays of antient power and greatness; the remains of druidism; the written and unwritten memorials of the dead; in short, every circum-

stance to which the notice of topographers and antiquaries is usually directed. It is pleasing to observe that this tourist is not less qualified for his undertaking than gratified by it; and that in the execution of it he received the most flattering attentions from the gentry of the county. Even the fair sex were interested in his pursuits; and more than once, in the course of his rambles, we read of ladies in their carriages ascending the mountains at early dawn, followed by the sumpter-cart, to witness his inter-sections of tumuli for the purpose of discovering their long concealed contents. The search, indeed, was in no instance satisfactory either to the projectors or the spectators: but if broken urns and burnt bones afforded a poor treat to gaping curiosity, the store of good things with which the sumpter-cart was loaded made ample amends; and delicious viands, with a choice dessert of fruit, spread out either on the carpet of nature or in a neighbouring inn, sent all parties home in good humour. So ample and varied are the information and entertainment which this tourist has here collected, that we profess our inability to follow him minutely, in this article, through all his rambles: but we shall endeavour to notice the most prominent features of his work, and to present such specimens as will enable the reader to form a tolerable idea of the whole. Though Mr. F. does not avowedly make his commencement from his residence at Fishguard, but reserves his account of this place for the close of his volume, and begins with the hundred of Dewisland, yet he is tempted by a view of the bay of Fishguard to present some account of the landing of the French, Feb. 20. 1797, and of their excesses in the town. He does not state their number.

Before, however, Mr. Fenton enters on his professed office as an historical tourist, he fully develops his design in the following passage:

‘Wishing to lead the traveller through such parts of the country as most intimately connect themselves with its history, and afford the most interesting objects, whether viewed with the eye of a picturesque tourist or a profound antiquary, I shall frequently have occasion to abandon the main road, and now in my outset, for that purpose, must take the liberty of digressing from that which connects Fishguard with St. David’s, to adopt a route productive of circumstances calculated to awaken the finest feelings in the bosom of the philosopher, the historian, the patriot, and the Briton, few of which have even been noticed, and none pressed with effect on the attention, or forcibly brought home to the heart.’

We are soon brought to druidical monuments, such as crom-lecks, cistvaens, carnedds, or cairns, and are called to notice ‘a rocking stone, about five ton weight; so delicately poised, that it yields to the pressure of the little finger,’ as marking the entrance

entrance into the druidical region: but, instead of involving ourselves in the mysteries of druidism, especially on our setting out, we shall hasten to the sacred precinct of Ty Ddewi, or St. David's, and pay our respects to its cathedral, once the metropolitan see of Wales.

' That the Romans were acquainted with this part of the county of Pembroke there can be no doubt, if we give credit to a work, for the illustration, I may almost say the knowledge of which we are indebted to that learned and indefatigable antiquary Dr. Stukely, I mean Richard the monk of Cirencester's *Itinerary*, whose authority he has too well established to be in any fear of its being overturned, however attacked with no contemptible force by a late ingenious writer, the historian of Whalley, but with more pertinacity than argument; for though with an air of bravado, he says, "I am prepared to support all my assertions by irrefragable proofs," yet he produced none, and if he had produced any, they might fairly be suspected to prove of that mongrel breed he charitably supposes the monk dealt in, "something between bold conjecture and inventive fraud."

' The monk's seventh *Iter* commences at *Aquæ Solis*, Bath, and ends at *Menapia*, or *Menevia*, improperly there translated *St. David's*, which more particularly to point out, the monk himself adds, "*Ab hac urbe per m. p. xxx. navigas in Hyberniam*," yet most unaccountably dropping the important city of *Maridunum*, *Carmarthen*, leaps at once from *Leucarum Locher* to *Ad Vigessimum*, and thence to *Menapia*.

' But to settle this mistake, in May 1805, I had the good fortune to discover the station of *Ad Vigessimum* by evidence not to be controverted, by the square agger with rounded angles, and other more infallible criterions of its Roman character, such as bricks and pottery, and that in a wild, mountainous part of the country, at a distance from any town, building, or other casualty to which such appearances so liable to mislead might be ascribed; and exactly in the most direct line from *Carmarthen* to *St. David's*, and nearly within the distance of twenty miles from the former, and a little less from the latter (supposing *Carmarthen* the stage omitted, either from a defect in the monk's MSS., or the neglect of the transcriber, be restored to the *Iter*); a circumstance tending farthest to confirm Richard's authority, and prove how much we are indebted to him for our acquaintance with Roman Britain, and what reliance is to be placed on his account.*

' With regard to the exact site of the Roman *Menapia* I have been less successful, though I have not been wanting in my researches for

* • The monk of Cirencester's valuable little work having become very rare, I am happy in this opportunity of congratulating the public on the late new edition of this curious *Itinerary*, ushered into the world with the assistance and under the sanction of such high and respectable abilities, as may enable it to challenge its pertest antagonist to the field, without the fear of discomfiture.'

that purpose ; yet, in a corn country, for ages in a constant rotation of husbandry, and of late years much subdivided by fences, it may be difficult, nay, almost impossible, to trace any very distinct vestiges of the Roman inclosure, most probably constructed of turf, or if of more durable Vitruvian materials, liable to the changes known on that coast to have been occasioned by the incroachments of a boisterous sea, and either swept away by its waves, or whelmed under its drifted mountains of sand.

‘ But there is every reason to presume that it did not stand where the present city does, otherwise the pious devotees who first settled there could not have been said to have selected a spot whose reclusé situation alone determined their choice. Besides, though *Myrŵ*, whether it be a Welsh word coined out of the Latin *Menapia* or *Menavia*, or whether the Roman name be Welsh latinized, might have been adopted to designate David’s monastic settlement, yet he is said to have been born and educated at *Henfyniŵ*, old *Menapia*, no doubt, not far off from the present, to distinguish the original town from that with the borrowed appellation. And there are strong grounds for supposing that the Romans, who were quick to discover the advantages of situation, would have fixed their station as near the sea as possible, and that it lay in the vicinity of the *Porthmawr*, or the Great Haven, where, for ages after, there existed a constantly frequented passage to and from Ireland, and so characterized by the monk of *Cirencester*, insomuch as to give the inhabitants of the opposite coast in the sister kingdom the name of *Menapii*.

‘ But for the actual existence of *Menapia* as a Roman station, and to place it beyond conjecture, as well as to stamp the reputation of Richard’s Itinerary as a guide to be depended upon, it was reserved for the elaborate *Stukely*, in his *Medallic History of Carausius*, to furnish the most convincing proofs.’

Having mentioned *Carausius*, who like himself was *civis Menapia*, Mr. Fenton gives a short biographical sketch of this ‘ mis-represented character’ as he is termed : but we cannot think that he establishes the point for which he contends. Gibbon is quoted, and several of his phrases are borrowed, (see *Decline and Fall*, &c. Vol. i. 4to. p. 431.) though the tourist differs from the historian respecting the birth and death of *Carausius*. It is intimated by Mr. F. that *Alectus*, the minister of *Carausius*, was prompted by the Emperor *Constantius* to assassinate his master : but, according to the more probable statement of Gibbon, *Alectus* was led to this act by his own ambition ; since, on the fall of *Carausius*, he “ imitated the example of his master, and succeeded to his power and danger.” Mr. F. gives no good reason for discrediting the report of *Eutropius*, who says that *Carausius* was *vilissimè natus*. Several of those who actually succeeded to the purple were in the same predicament ; and, after the memoir of Sir William James, at p. 195., we were surprized that the historical tourist should suppose that he could subvert the testimony of *Eutropius* by the following

observation : 'had he been of low and base lineage, it is hardly to be conceived, and highly improbable, that by the dint of natural genius alone, he could have brought himself into notice so early, and have made himself conspicuous by such uncommon talents.' Is Mr. F. to be told that it is the property of uncommon talents to burst from obscurity into notice and advancement ?

Zeal for the honour of his native place seems to have inspired the author with great pomposity of language in pre-facing the history of its origin :

'For the origin of the New Menapia, or St. David's, obscure, and I may say as little explored as the source of the Nile, we must be reconciled to grope through the dim twilight of legend till the first kindled rush-light of history lend us its feeble ray to direct our pursuit.'

After legendary lore and passages of authentic history, we come to St. David's in its existing state ; and, to assist description, two plates are given, one of the episcopal palace and the other of the cathedral. Of the latter building, we have this account :

'The whole fabric is divided into a nave with two side aisles, a choir occupying the area of the steeple, a north and south transept and chancel, with a north and south aisle, co-extensive with it and the chapels to the east, except the Lady's Chapel. The length of the whole building within the walls is three hundred and seven feet ; that of the nave to the entrance into the choir one hundred and twenty-eight feet six inches ; of that portion, comprehending the choir and chancel up to the high altar, ninety-eight feet six inches. The breadth of the nave in the clear, sixty-nine feet six inches. Each transept is of the same dimensions, forty-seven feet by thirty-three ; but the external line of the aisles to the east of the transepts does not exactly range with that of the aisles of the nave, there being in its whole breadth a difference of two feet six inches in favour of the latter. But I will not trespass on the time of my reader by too minute a detail, for I flatter myself that "*de minimis non curare*," with antiquaries of any taste, is a maxim as well acknowledged as it is in the law ; for how can the mind, occupied with the contemplation of the whole of this venerable fabric, have leisure to attend to every unimportant subdivision, in settling the fraction of an inch, and fritter itself away in pointing out and registering every trifling object of inferior ornament ? To do this requires such a frigidity of mental power as the cockney discovered when, sitting for his picture to an eminent artist, and insensible to the effect of the portrait in general, he only remarked with great petulancy, that he thought justice was not done to the woof of his ruffles, as they were Dresden lace of great price.

'The entrance into the cathedral is awfully striking. The nave is of noble proportion and majestically simple, separated from the side aisles by two rows of arches, five Saxon and one pointed, next the

west end. The architecture of this portion of the edifice is chiefly in the Saxon style, but of that peculiar kind when beginning to lose itself in the early pointed or English order. The arches of the gallery are a mixture of the Saxon and Gothic, but the latter here preponderates. The several architraves to the lower and upper arches exhibit an infinite variety of diagonals, frets, and foliage; and however the form of the arch may vary, the Saxon decorations are still preserved throughout the whole nave as well as choir. The age of the nave we may fix to John's reign; but the Rood loft at the upper end of it adjoining the choir bespeaks the glorious era of the third Edward, being the most perfect specimen of this part of an ancient cathedral now left, whether we consider the peculiar elegance of the design or richness of the execution; the same ornaments here attracting our notice as St. Stephen's chapel displayed before they became a wanton sacrifice to barbarous innovation. Nothing can exceed the beauty and lightness of the supporting front. In the centre is an archway leading into a porch, through which we enter the choir. On each side of this entrance there was the site of an altar with a rich screen; that on the left differing materially from the one on the right, yet both of fine taste, the whole ending in a highly wrought parapet.

'The roof of the nave, substituted evidently instead of the original groins found to be in decay, and therefore lowered, as appears, by the lines of its former height, on the tower wall without, is of Irish oak of most singular and exquisite workmanship, and reflects great honour on the taste and spirit of Dr. Owen Poole, then treasurer, at whose expence, and under whose eye it was raised.'

Sanctioned by the practice of county-historians, Mr. F. copies many epitaphs: but we shall not purloin any of them from his pages. We could wish, however, to transcribe his account of the light-house on the Smalls, which occurs towards the end of the first iter; and perhaps we should, if other iters did not present us with subjects still more worthy of record.

In the second iter, the tourist proceeds from St. David's, coastwise, by way of Milford to Haverfordwest: but, after having so lately been in a Protestant church, he surprized us by language which might better become a Catholic; for at p. 135., when describing the seat of his friend on the rocky coast of Solya, and contrasting the benevolent conduct of its proprietor with that of its former inhabitants, who hung out false lights to decoy wandering mariners, he adds, 'it is to be hoped that such benevolence will serve to expiate the offences of his predecessors.' It is now an exploded doctrine that the wicked can ride to heaven on the backs of the righteous. "Every tub," as the vulgar say, "must stand on its own bottom."

Milford-haven has long been celebrated as one of the finest harbours on the coast; and in connection with the natural advantages of this estuary, Mr. F. descants on the new town of
Milford,

Milford, with its dock-yard *, and its singularly beautiful situation. The town of Haverfordwest, indisputably the largest and most central in the county, obtains from the tourist all due respect ; and he does not forget its ruined castle, (which in the civil wars was garrisoned for the king,) its churches, and even its conventicles.

A full description of Carew-castle occurs in the third iter ; and, as an appropriate supplement to the account of this noble edifice, is inserted a full account of a tilt and tournament given there by Sir Rhys ap Thomas, in honour of his being admitted companion of the illustrious order of the Garter.

The estates and residences of the great landed proprietors, as those of Picton, Stackpole, Orielson, &c. figure conspicuously in these pages. As a specimen of the baronial grandeur of Pembrokeshire, we are induced to copy from the fourth iter Mr. F.'s remarks on Picton-castle, the seat of Lord Milford :

‘ It would be an insult to Picton-castle to estimate its consequence and its beauties by a scale employed to measure modern villas, the work of a Brown, or a Nash, by a few formal clumps disposed so as to admit a glimpse of a distant horsepond, the ruins of a windmill, a kennel in the mask of a church, and bits of Gothic injudiciously stuck here and there like patches on the face producing deformity. If such things constitute a fine place, every mushroom citizen of yesterday may command them as well as the first peer of the realm. But Picton-castle owes its beauties to circumstances that wealth cannot supply or titles confer, circumstances that age and an unbroken line of ancestry in its possessors have given value to, and have made venerable ; an ancient structure that nothing can so much disfigure as an attempt to modernize and make less so ; a castle (and I believe a solitary instance) never forfeited, never deserted, never vacant, that never knew a melancholy blank in its want of a master, from whose walls hospitality was never exiled, and whose governors might be said to have been hereditary ; a castle in the midst of possessions and forests coeval with itself, and proudly looking down over a spacious domain on woods of every after growth to an inland sea, bounding its property and its prospect beyond them, for such is Picton-castle.

‘ We hear of no earlier settlement than this by any of the Norman followers of Arnulph de Montgomery in Pembrokeshire, so that it is not presuming too much to date its origin as far back as William Rufus's time, since which it has had always the good fortune to be inhabited, and not for half a century at a time by owls and bats, but by lords of its own, men eminent in their day as warriors, as statesmen, and as Christians ; among whom I need only mention Sir John Wogan, Chief Justice of Ireland, Sir Henry Donn, who fell fighting

* While we are writing this, the newspapers state that Government has it in contemplation to give up the present Dock-yard at Milford town, and to form a new one four miles higher up Milford-haven, on the Pembroke side, on a spot called Pater-church.

for his country, and not so far removed from our memory that great and good man Sir John Philipps, whose marble too modestly records but half his worth; and till within these few years this interesting pile has preserved the same form it originally had, without addition or diminution, the ground about it only, having been from time to time altered to suit the convenience or the taste of the different possessors,

‘ It appeared to have been an oblong building flanked with six large bastions, three on each side, with a narrow projection terminating in two bastions of smaller dimensions at the east end, between which was the grand portcullised entrance, now contracted into a handsome door-way. It was evidently moated round, and approached by a drawbridge, now supplied by a raised flagged terrace between low parapets,

‘ About ten years ago Lord Milford finding the castle disproportionate to his style of hospitality, made an addition to its west end, whereby he obtained two magnificent rooms, one a dining the other a drawing-room, with suitable bed-chambers over them, though it is to be lamented that his Lordship had not better assimilated the external of his improvements to the ancient part of the structure. The whole interior is well disposed of, so as to produce an elegant suite of rooms. The largest space between the more western bastions is occupied by a hall, a cube of noble dimensions, paved with black and white marble, at the east end of which is a gallery with an organ, and beyond it a chapel, handsomely wainscotted with mahogany, more to the eastward. In the hall there is a fine original portrait of that great minister Sir Robert Walpole, in his robes as Chancellor of the Exchequer. In the middle south bastion there is a well-furnished library, and over it an elegant breakfasting-room, with a chimney-piece of white marble, an exquisite piece of sculpture, with windows, though at the end of an avenue, of nine feet from the thickness of the walls, commanding a most enchanting view of the junction of the Cleddau and Landshipping quay over a fine sloping and well-wooded scene. A small drawing-room takes up a space terminating in the sweep of the western bastion, and a small dining-parlour opposite is formed to accommodate itself to the bow of the north bastion, though of comfortable dimensions, yet small when compared with those of the new apartments. In short, within and without there is in Picton-castle an air of great baronial magnificence, and his Lordship's superb establishment is commensurate with this appearance, and justifies his pretensions as to family rank, property, and influence in the county.

‘ The gardens are of vast extent and luxuriantly cropped, and the hot houses and hot walls occupy an immense space; nor is the conservatory ill stocked. No dessert can be better or more amply furnished than that of Picton, which exhibits a profusion of the richest fruit of every kind the whole season round; and his Lordship is a long season in the country, for he leaves London for Pembrokeshire early, and takes his flight out of it late.

‘ Compliment may be carried so far as to become a satire or an insult, and there is so much about Picton-castle to be admired that there is no necessity of sacrificing truth, either by giving it credit for beauties

beauties it has not, or concealing defects it has. But, to give it a fair title to that character it is so fully capable of, every common observer might suggest many alterations that in so fine a place we regret are not adopted, and which cannot be supposed to have escaped his Lordship's taste and discernment.

'The park, now destitute of deer, is of large compass, and richly wooded, occupying that part of the grounds to the eastward chiefly, and flanked towards the river by a hanging wood, through which a most charming walk has been formed to wind in a very romantic direction above the estuary, and rendered more delightful by the frequent occurrences of seats placed to produce the happiest effect, and a hermitage yet but seldom visited, being at such a distance from the castle, a pity! as it is one of the most pleasing features the place can boast of.'

Though an antiquary, Mr. F. is not insensible to picturesque beauties, and the fine prospects of the county are often the subjects of his eulogy. We shall pass the Roman station *Ad Vicissimum*, with its agger and rounded angles, in order to introduce a sketch of the scenery of Pembrokeshire, given in the fifth iter. It is the account of Trecoon, the enviable retreat of Joseph Foster Barham, Esq., M. P. for Stockbridge :

'Trecoon, in point of situation, yields to very few spots in the county, as possessing every ingredient of fine scenery, being situated on the edge of a steep hill, having a higher at its back, sheltering it from the north above the narrow vale which the little river Cylllell rises in, and runs through, having the boundaries on each side nobly wooded, till where the vale terminates in a bold, craggy rock, that projects from a tract of heathy upland, affording ample room and subject for amusement to the sportsman. The vale, at a very small expence, may be all laid under water, to form a most magnificent lake, and capable of producing choice fish, the native trout of that river being large, red, and of high flavour. Of this place may be said, what is not applicable to many places in the county, that the possessor, to improve it, has nothing to do but to cut down trees judiciously, the growth at present being too crowded.'

The remaining iters include excursions from Haverfordwest across Pembroke Ferry to the town of Pembroke; from Pembroke to Orielson, Castle Martyn, and Stackpole Court, the seat of Lord Cawdor, of which a pleasing view is given, copied from a drawing by Lady Cawdor, who excels as an artist; from Pembroke to Manorbeer, the castle in which Giraldus Cambrensis was born, now a most striking ruin, and to the town of Tenby; which is the Naples of South Wales.

'I now enter Tenby, beautiful in every stage of its approximation, but doubly so when you are in it, constituting one of the most prominent features and justly the boast of Pembrokeshire. The town is most delightfully situated, occupying a lofty promontory, which the sea at full tide, to use the forcible phrase of old Leland, '*peninsulateth*,'

sulareth,' but does not, as a modern tourist has been hardy enough to advance, *isolate*, for the isthmus rises forty feet above the highest tides. The town within the walls at the west end was narrow, but much wider as it spread eastward, keeping the shape of a battledoor, on the north side. The ground on the north side is steep, but on the south sloping gradually without the walls to the Back Water, on which side there are nothing but ruins, whole streets desolated within the walls, and portions of buildings scattered every where without that must have formed a large suburb. The range of walls on the south side is very entire, and runs pretty straight till it comes to the great gate at the south-east angle, when, taking a new direction, it follows the edge of the cliff all the way till it joins the curtain that connected it with the castle; a curtain that appears to have at one time enclosed the almost insulated point on which the castle stood. At a gateway leading to the pier the north wall begins, and at first takes its course running at the foot of the cliff near the sands, then in an oblique direction climbs up the precipitous steep on that side till it reaches the spot where formerly stood the west gateway, that Leland calls "the seemeliest, as circuled without with an embattled but open rofid tour, after the fascion of the Estgate of Pembroke," of which not a trace now remains; but the gateway at the south-east bend of the walls is exactly of the same character. It stood where the passage leads up by the end of the White Lion. Henry the Sixth is said to have built or rebuilt the walls in the thirty-sixth year of his reign; but it was left for Queen Elizabeth, who was a great benefactress to the town in general, and whose initials are still extant over part of the town walls, to contribute that strength and perfection to them which the present remains are a striking proof of.

'As to the castle, very little of the embattled part exists, besides one bastion and square tower at the eastern extremity. The ruins towards the south seem to be of a sort of houses, perhaps barracks in more modern times, but foundations are to be traced every where; and this fortress, from its situation, must have been very strong.'

'There is no wonder then that in an age when an eye for the picturesque is become so general, that Tenby is the admiration of all who see it, and particularly of those who have staid long enough there to inhale health from its sea breeze.'

Here occasion is taken to introduce an account of the singular society or fraternity of *Sea Sergeants*, which formerly met annually in one of the sea-ports of South Wales, and spent a week in friendly conviviality. A list of the members is given, with a bill of expences for one day, including breakfast, dinner for 31 persons, and supper for 17, at Carmarthen, July 31. 1745, —the total being only 9l. 6s. 8d. The Society discontinued their meetings at the accession of his present Majesty.

From Tenby, the tourist directs his course to the Teivy, Cilgetty, Bonvill's Court, vale of Cych, and Blaenbylen, introducing a short biographical notice of Maurice Morgan, Esq., from the pen of Dr. Symmons. As Mr. F. passes up and down

the Teivy, he is attracted by the picturesque beauties of its banks, particularly by the situation and striking effect of the ruins of Cilgerran-castle. A visit to the mountains succeeded the water-excursion on the Teivy; and, these hills being covered with tumuli or barrows, a project was formed for excavating some of the principal of them. As we have alluded to this antiquary's ardour in exploring these recesses of the dead, and the enthusiasm which he communicated to the Welsh gentry, it may not here be improper to copy his narrative :

‘ Initiated in the mysteries of barrow opening, from having often had the honour of being of a party with my friend Sir Richard Hoare, on such occasions in Wiltshire, the best school for the knowledge of tumuli of every description, where I have seen for a whole week the operations carried on with a method and judgment which nothing but experience could produce, by labourers accustomed to the business, and under the eye of a gentleman appointed to superintend, who has reduced this pursuit almost to a science, I was desirous of attempting something of the same kind, on a small scale, in my native county, in order to form a comparative statement of our discoveries and those on the Wiltshire downs, and only lamented my want of fortune to carry my wishes into execution. Happening to express myself to this effect before my host, and referring to some tumuli that we should encounter in our proposed excursion for the following day, with a zeal and a politeness highly honourable to him, he requested I would new-cast my bill of fare, saying, that he would be proud to contribute to my gratification on the subject I was so anxious about. Orders were given accordingly for a certain number of labourers to be in readiness to attend us the next morning, which opened with most favourable auspices. The pioneers and the sumpter-cart moved off early, and we followed soon after. Vrenny vawr, the most easterly of the Pembrokeshire hills, and the nearest to us, was destined for the scene of our operations. Our journey thither was unpleasant through mizzling showers, with the landscape perfectly obscured, continuing so till we began to ascend the mountain, when, on a sudden, the mist began to disperse partially, letting in only portions of the extensive prospect by sea and land which lay around us. First, the bold peninsula of Dinas and the rocky summit of Carn Englyn appeared, and were as soon withdrawn again; then a distant avenue, finely illumined, opened as far as Gowerland in Glamorganshire; the view thus continuing to shut and open in various and rapid succession, like scenes in a pantomime, till the whole expanse of prospect unveiled itself, and became clear to the extreme verge of the horizon. Had we no other pursuit, this enchanting scene alone would amply compensate for the most toilsome excursion; to give an idea of which, the language already appropriate to the picturesque wants adequate expressions, for such are its beauties, that to be imagined and admired they must be seen; and who can hope again to see them under the same singularly favourable circumstances? We began our operations on the tumulus that first occurred after we had gained the mid-acclivity of the mountain, whose dimensions might be about thirty feet in diameter,

meter, and about eight feet eight inches high to the apex, sloping gently to the extremities. We made a large section, and had not penetrated above two feet before we discovered marks of cremation, generally an infallible criterion of the sepulchral character. Within another foot and a half from the surface, we came to several flat stones tiled over each other, which induced us to dig more cautiously. Having removed the earth from about them, we found a receptacle of the size and shape of a common country oven, two feet in diameter, and as much in depth; being opened, it was found full of water; there was a coarse flag at bottom, and stones of a similar sort lining the sides. After lading out the water, we came to fragments of a large urn of very rude pottery, and half burnt bones in a thick black sediment, seemingly of decomposed charcoal, which was most carefully searched in hopes of its containing beads, amulets, bone utensils, arrow heads, or other relics, that generally accompany such interments on the Downs of Wiltshire, but nothing of the kind was discovered. The urn, perhaps softened by the moisture that involved it, appeared to have been broken for ages; yet by what we could gather from its shattered state, it had nothing singular in shape, size, or materials. We then proceeded in our ascent to encounter two large tumuli, nearer the summit of the mountain, and having a competent number of labourers for the purpose, the operations of both went on at the same time; yet though we fairly intersected one, the largest, and made an immense opening in the other, no interment was found; but the former, as went the tradition, and probably its companion too, about thirty years ago, from a supposition that it contained treasure, had been ransacked, when it is said a violent tempest, attended with thunder and lightning, arose to scare the bold attempt, obliging those concerned in it to desist and leave their work unfinished; yet it is too evident they went so far as to have disturbed the actual spot of the interment; as the same sort of stones that covered the urn in the first barrow we opened, appeared scattered in a state of confusion amongst the earth, which might have formed a similar receptacle to what we found in the other; but there was no appearance of bones or fragments of urns; the earth, that was then disturbed and thoroughly mixed, having been thrown in, grown hard and consolidated, so that no trace could well be expected of what it had been.

The subsequent extract is added on account of the beautiful scenery with which the conclusion of this excursion was crowned:

‘ Leaving Moel Trygarn, the ladies of our party who were in a carriage, were under a necessity of taking a circuitous road to get to the place of destination, the highest peak of the Preselly range, whilst we continued our ride over the ridge in a most zig-zag direction, to avoid the patches of boggy turbary we met with in our progress. I pass several of those insulated rocky portions so peculiar to Pembrokeshire, which in this sterile region, otherwise so uniformly unpicturesque, produce no unpleasing effect. In the shelter of one of them, I remarked scattered remains of druidical works, and

and particularly an oval enclosure, made of flat stones pitched on end, the only one of that form I ever recollect to have seen. A few of the more elevated points of this mountain ridge terminate in a conical heap of stones, with their grey heads of moss pointing out the grave of the warrior. Here and there occur evident pieces of the Roman road, though chiefly overgrown with turf, and lost in the sponginess of the soil. Our road being nearer, though intricate and toilsome, we had just reached the summit of the mountain, the place of rendezvous, in time to hail the arrival of the ladies; who, having abandoned their curricles, and taken to their horses, were winding up the most accessible acclivity, the curricles and sumpter cart following; I believe I may venture to say, the only wheeled carriages which had ever attempted that road, unless, in the undauntedness of their career, the scythed cars of our early ancestors were whirled over those sublime regions. A more auspicious day never shone on an entertainment, the principal ingredient of which, prospect, depended on a clear sky; it was free from the least cloud or mist, so that every object the eye could reach was seen distinctly; and I may challenge the whole principality, nay, the whole kingdom, to furnish a view, if I may be allowed the expression, more intelligibly extensive, and more interestingly diversified. Hence the sea is seen, with all its sinuous outline of rocky coast, like a belt all round, only in that space which joins the almost peninsular county of Pembroke to Carmarthenshire; Milford-haven, like a cluster of small lakes shining here and there through all the branching tract, which that wonderful inlet of the ocean intersects, as also Lundy, the coast of Devon; and, as it happened on that day, the Wicklow hills in Ireland. The lowland country that stretches on either hand from the base of this mountain, is richly cultivated, and lies like a map under you, with every gentleman's seat and every farm distinguishable. Snowdon and Cader Idris in themselves are stupendously grand objects; but, to say nothing of the difficulty and fatigue of ascending them, as places to look from, they much disappoint the traveller's painful curiosity, as all that is to be seen near is one rocky scab or scrofulous mass; the beautiful narrow vales that separate the mountains, being foreshortened and lost; and as to the more distant objects they are too indistinct to be discriminated, or what is oftener the case, they are totally lost in the haze of the horizon. We spread our cold collation on the *Tapir Verd*, then, after a long run of fine weather, dry and of velvety softness, and vied with each other in the enjoyment of it, for nothing could exceed the luxury of such a scene, the day preserving to its last decline the same cloudless appearance. After a regalement, from which it was difficult to tear ourselves, we prudently descended with the setting sun in time to visit the detached rocks that the sides of the mountain near its base are tufted with, which at a distance and seen from the heights, make an insignificant figure; but when approached, exhibit a wild and no small accumulation of rocky fragments of all shapes and sizes, the effects of some awful convulsion of nature.

At Cemaes, one of the great divisions and specimens are county, and which had been erected into a I to particularise the

Mr. F. introduces a legal definition of a Lordship Marcher; which may be said to be 'such land as might be won from the Welsh by a Norman or English adventurer with their own force, and at their own charge, over which they were suffered to exercise sovereign jurisdiction.'

In the last iter, which includes the route from Newport to Fishguard, the singular cromlech at Pentre Evan is noticed; and, had we not already exceeded our limits, we should be tempted to insert the description of this druidical monument: but we feel that it is incumbent on us now to take our leave of Mr. Fenton, who is unquestionably intitled to our thanks for the entertainment which he has afforded us, and who has perhaps been already complimented by the inhabitants of his native country. We must not, however, close this article without a stricture or two on the tourist's style, which is occasionally inflated, often incorrect, and offending by awkward expressions. When the French at Fishguard emptied the feather-beds for the sake of the ticking, we are told that they '*eviscerated* the feather-beds.' At p. 232., Mr. Mathias's plantations are said to be '*disposed of* with taste;' and at p. 236., Mr. F. talks of '*speaking to* the contents of a very large tumulus,' &c.: but we are more offended by the repeated occurrence of such phraseology as the following: '*In the chancel you see,*' p. 218.; '*passing this you come,*' p. 117.; '*from the breakfast-room you walk,*' p. 247. This vulgarism is easily corrected, and by the correction Mr. F.'s pages would be much improved.

An Appendix, containing many curious documents, is subjoined to the tour; which is moreover enriched with thirty plates and a map, and is furnished with that useful addition, an Index.

ART. II. *Dr. Thomson's Travels in Sweden.*

[*Art. concluded from the last Number, p. 128.*]

THE tract of country which intervenes between Stockholm and Upsala is generally flat, though diversified with round-backed knolls, or hills of moderate elevation. Like the other provinces of Sweden, Upland abounds in lakes, and is thickly covered with pine-forests. The predominant soil is clay, and the rocks are all primitive; consisting principally of gneiss, which exhibits a large admixture of hornblend. It is remarkable that no town, and scarcely even a village, occurs ^{in the} progress. In Upsala; at the same time that the road ^{is} more frequented than that which leads from Gothenburg to the Swedish capital. The description of the principal of one of them,

capital objects in Upsala will, we believe, be found sufficiently accurate; and that of the University is particularly copious and satisfactory. Having recorded the desolation which has visited the former mansion and botanic garden of the celebrated Linné, Dr. Thomson thus proceeds:

‘ Adjoining the botanic garden is an elegant building where the lectures on botany and natural history are read. We paid it a visit of course, and took a cursory view of the animals and other departments of the collection. I was somewhat curious to see its extent, because I conceived that it was from it chiefly, and from the collection belonging to the Academy of Sciences in Stockholm, which must have been insignificant in his time, that Linnæus drew those characters which constitute the foundation of his *Systema Nature*. Though this collection is but small compared to those that may be seen at Paris and in some other places, yet it must be allowed to be very respectable; and might well have served as a foundation for the classification of Linnæus. The collection of shells is very good — this I was the more surprized at, because I conceive Linnæus’s arrangements of shells to be one of the most defective in the whole range of his classes. It was indeed much less perfect at first than it afterwards became. But even after receiving the last corrections of its author, it must be admitted to be a very inadequate classification of these beautiful but difficult objects of arrangement.

‘ The house and laboratory of Bergman, and the collection of minerals belonging to the University of Upsala, were likewise objects of considerable curiosity with me. For this purpose I waited upon Mr. Ekeberg, with whose name, in consequence of his publications, I was previously acquainted. I found him in a bad state of health, almost blind, and so deaf that it was very difficult to keep up a conversation. Besides, he had a difficulty in speaking from a disease in his breast. Notwithstanding his unfortunate situation he received me with the utmost politeness and kindness, and presented me with a set of specimens of the remarkable minerals which he had analysed, and which were now so scarce that they could not be procured. These were *gadolinite* and *yttrotalite*. From him likewise I obtained specimens of Swedish *titanite*. Not being in a condition to bear the fatigue of showing me the laboratory and the mineral collection, Professor Afzelius, to whom he introduced me, was so obliging as to undertake the task, and he went through it with a degree of politeness and readiness, which added greatly to the obligation. The mineral collection at Upsala is by far the completest of any that I saw, during my stay in Sweden. By far the most valuable part of it, indeed, perhaps I may say almost the whole, was collected by the present Professor of Chemistry, John Afzelius, who travelled for the purpose, at least as far as Copenhagen and Germany, and was certainly very successful in his objects. A great many show-specimens are arranged upon a long table covered with glass. The great body of the collection is arranged in drawers, in two small rooms at the two extremities of the long room in which the show-specimens are exhibited. It would take too much time to attempt to particularise the

the minerals contained in this collection. It appeared to me to contain specimens of almost all the known species. I could not perceive that it was arranged according to any particular system. Indeed this observation applies to Sweden in general: no preference is shown either to the method of Werner or that of Häüy. The systematic collection of Svedenstierna indeed is arranged according to the method of Häüy, because it was formed while he was attending the lectures of that eminent mineralogist. But he has not adopted the same method for his Swedish minerals.

The collection at Upsala contains many splendid specimens from Siberia, Norway, and Great Britain. Nor is it poor in Swedish minerals. Among others, I saw a large and complete crystal of pyrophyllite, which I mention because it is uncommon to find the crystals of this mineral, when of a certain size, in any other state than that of mere fragments. This crystal was above three inches in length. It was of the shape in which this mineral most commonly is found, a double four-sided pyramid, truncated at both ends, and the faces of the one pyramid opposite to the edges of the other. If I recollect right there is an accurate account of the crystals of pyrophyllite by M. Häüy, published in the first number of the Transactions of the Natural History Society of Moscow.

Some mineralogists having conceived that the *hyacinths* analysed by Bergman were in reality not hyacinths, but belonging to the mineral afterwards distinguished by Werner by the name of *cinnamon-stone*, I conceived that I had a good opportunity to determine the point. I requested Professor Afzelius to show me the very specimens which constitute the hyacinths in Bergman's collection, and out of which he had taken the specimens which he had subjected to analysis. As Afzelius was Bergman's assistant at the time, he knew the whole history of the analysis, and brought me the very box unaltered in which Bergman's hyacinths were contained, and from which he had taken his specimens. There could be no doubt from their appearance that they were real hyacinths. They had no resemblance to the cinnamon-stone. I asked Professor Afzelius if he had determined their specific gravity. He assured me that it was the same with that of the hyacinth. The errors of Bergman's analysis cannot therefore be explained, from the supposition that the mineral which he examined was really a different species. It was owing to the imperfection of his method, and the small progress which analytical chemistry had at that time made. I have no doubt that many an analysis made in more recent times will be found inaccurate from the same causes.

I could not find that there was any complete collection of rocks in the mineral cabinet of Upsala; nor indeed did much attention appear to be paid to geognosy in that University. I inquired after the geographical collection of the Swedish minerals which Bergman is said to have made; but was told by Afzelius that it was very small and of little value. Indeed, after seeing the mineral cabinet belonging to the College of Mines at Stockholm, I could not expect any new information on the subject from the collection at Upsala. But I wished to be enabled to judge of the real extent of Bergman's mineralogical knowledge. The specimen which he has given us of the sagacity of his views in

in his Treatise on Volcanoes, and his Dissertation on the Mountains of West Gothland, is certainly very favourable. I likewise inquired after the models of chemical machines and works which Bergman is said to have collected. Afzelius showed me a few, I suppose all that ever existed. They were not collected by Bergman; but presented to him by Von Swab.'

Among the iron mines in Upland, which generally consist of veins of magnetic iron-stone, that of Dannemora is pre-eminent, on account of its antiquity and the superior quality of its produce: but, for various interesting particulars relative to the geology and workings of that celebrated mine, we must refer to the text, which does not easily admit of abridgment. In the review of the mineral products of Upland, the quarry of Ytterby is not neglected:

'It lies rather less than two English miles north from the fortress of Vaxholm, and consists of a rock obviously connected with gneiss, that constitutes the basis of the country; though it consists chiefly of beautiful white felspar, and felspar of a flesh red colour. It contains pure white quartz, in separate masses; both the quartz and the felspar are of a quality adapted for the manufacture of porcelain. There are also layers of mica; but like those of the quartz they occur separately, and not mixed with the other minerals. So that this rock contains all the constituents of granite or gneiss; though not arranged in the usual manner: an irregularity by no means uncommon in the primitive rocks. It was in the flesh red felspar that Arhenius discovered the black conchoidal mineral, afterwards distinguished by the name of Gadolinite. Its specific gravity is above 4. It was analysed by Gadolin, and found by him to contain a new earth, to which the name of *Yttria* was given, from the appellation of the quarry where the gadolinite is found. Probably the most accurate analysis of gadolinite is the last one which was made by Ekeberg, and which I shall here state. It was as follows:

' Yttria	-	-	-	-	55.5
Silica	-	-	-	-	23.0
Glucina	-	-	-	-	4.5
Oxide of iron	-	-	-	-	16.5
Volatile matter	-	-	-	-	0.5
					<hr/>
					100.0

'It was in the felspar likewise of this quarry that Ekeberg found the mineral, in which he detected the metal called by him Tantalum, and which, Dr. Wollaston has since shown, possesses the same properties with the Columbitum of Hatchett. To this mineral, from its containing both yttria and tantalum, Ekeberg gave the name of Yttrotantalite. Neither gadolinite nor yttrotantalite are now to be found in the quarry of Ytterby, except by the rarest accident. But gadolinite has been found in other parts of Sweden, particularly in the neighbourhood of Fahlun.'

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Taking their departure from Upsala for Fahlun, the travellers proceeded through a level and apparently wellcultivated country; in which they remarked a considerable number of houses, surrounded with fields, by which the soldiers, when not on actual duty, support themselves and families. At Dalscarbo, they observed the first appearance of granite, by walls of which material the fields were inclosed. The country between Sala and Fahlun is described as remarkably beautiful; being finely variegated with gently rising hills and winding valleys, chequered with lakes and striped with rivers.

In their appearance, habits, and manners, the Dalecarlians differ considerably from the rest of the Swedes; and their dress, it is alleged, has undergone no change since the days of Gustavus Vasa. They are excellent soldiers; and many of them are employed as porters and labourers in Stockholm. In the northern quarter of their province, they are distinguished by a peculiar dialect, approaching to that of the lowlanders in Scotland. The province from which they have their name is extensive, less overloaded with wood than most of the others, and beautifully diversified by lakes and vallies. Its numerous mountains are of various heights, the highest being at least 3000 feet above the level of the sea: but most of them are materially lower. The soil is entirely primitive, consisting of gneiss and beds of felspar, &c. Elfdal is remarkable for its quarries of porphyry, the basis of which is usually felspar, and sometimes clay-stone; and its numerous crystals, from which it derives its beauty, are also chiefly of felspar, but occasionally of quartz. Some specimens likewise exhibit hornblend crystals, and assume the appearance of sienite. From the geological observations which have been made at these quarries, it should seem that porphyry exists in the transition-rocks as well as in the primitive; which is contrary to the principles of the Wernerian classification. Large blocks of porphyry are raised at Elfdal, hewn into form, and afterward polished. 'In this state, it has a very great degree of beauty, while it is so hard as not to be liable to be injured by the weather. The pedestal of the statue of Gustavus III. in Stockholm, and many other exquisitely beautiful ornaments with which that capital is adorned, are constructed of this porphyry. It is made likewise into candlesticks, vases, paint-boxes, and a variety of other utensils; and these are exposed to sale in Stockholm, and are under the care of Mr. Hjelm, who sells them. Perhaps this porphyry work may be styled, without impropriety, the most complete manufactory in Sweden.'

The general view of the mineralogy of Dalecarlia, which is borrowed, with some suitable retrenchments, from Hisinger's Mineral

Mineral Geography of Sweden, will be found well intitled to the attention of the scientific reader.

Fahlun is situated in a low plain, surrounded by moderate hills, and consists of several parallel streets, crossed at right angles by a number of others. From the great quantity of copper-ore which used to be roasted in its neighbourhood, it was formerly enveloped in a cloud of smoke : but the produce of ore has of late years greatly diminished. The mine originally consisted of an immense cone of copper and iron pyrites, placed with its apex downwards. It has been wrought from time immemorial : but, at one period, it was under such incautious management that, about 150 years ago, all the excavated ground fell in, leaving only two large pillars of quartz undisturbed. Now that the accumulated ruins have been cleared away, the ore is fetched from the depth of 200 fathoms. About 600 men are still employed in the workings : but the ore seldom yields more than $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. of copper. All the machinery is driven by water, and is judiciously constructed :

‘ The whole wood-work of the mine is impregnated with sulphate of iron. The water that collects in the mine contains likewise a portion of the same salt in solution. As this water contains likewise a little sulphate of copper, it is pumped up, and made to run slowly through a pretty long trough, containing pieces of old iron. By this contrivance the copper is precipitated. It is collected occasionally, and smelted. The water, thus freed from copper, though it contains sulphate of iron, is by much too weak to render it profitable to crystallize the salt by means of heat. It is concentrated by a very ingenious method, borrowed from the method used in Germany to concentrate some of their weak salt brines. The water is pumped up to the top of a pretty high wooden stage, all wrapt round with birch twigs. It is let fall upon these twigs, and trickles over them to a trough, at the bottom of the stage, prepared to receive it : by this contrivance a very great surface of the liquid is exposed to the air, which greatly facilitates its evaporation. This process is repeated seven times, as the liquid moves along from one extremity of the stage to the other. By this time it is so much concentrated, as not to be very far from the point of crystallization. From this stage it runs into a large vessel lined with lead, where it is sufficiently concentrated by boiling. It is then let into a number of small square wooden vessels, set beside each other in a large apartment for the purpose. Into each of these vessels a number of wooden rods, fixed to a frame, is dipped. Upon these rods the sulphate of iron crystallizes. The copperas thus manufactured is used in Sweden, and exported to different ports in the Baltic. The manufacture, unless I misunderstood the workmen, belongs to Assessor Gahn.

‘ Assessor Gahn has likewise a very simple apparatus for distilling the iron pyrites, and obtaining the sulphur. It consists of a long wooden box, laid along the ground, which serves the purpose of a flue to the furnace, or still, in which the pyrites is roasted. The sul-

phur is deposited in this wooden box, the top of which may be lifted off at pleasure, and the sulphur swept out. It is again melted, and cast into rolls. Sulphur obtained by this means is never quite pure, usually containing one or more of the very volatile metals, and sometimes traces of copper, and very frequently of iron. Its colour is always pale, and not so beautiful as that of flower of sulphur.

The nature of the rock in which this mine is situated is not now easily ascertained, although Dr. Thomson has little doubt that it is mica slate. — Of Mr. Assessor Gahn, who has for many years resided at Fahlun, we are presented with a most engaging portrait; the frankness and urbanity of that gentleman's manners diffusing a lustre on the sterling value of his high scientific attainments.

Of the minerals found at Fahlun, the following, quoted from memory, may be regarded as some of the most remarkable: 1. large dodecaëdral crystals of garnet; 2. complete octaëdral crystals of iron ore; 3. crystals of *automalite*, (supposed to be spinell, with an admixture of sulphuret of zinc); 4. *fahlunite*; 5. *pyrophyllite*; 6. *gadolinite*; 7. supposed crystals of oxyd of tin; 8. *sahlite*; 9. a new mineral, somewhat resembling quartz, but very different in its properties. — Besides the mines at Fahlun, several others occur in Dalecarlia which yield iron and copper, and one or two of lead. The galena obtained from these last is usually sacrificed to the extraction of its silver, but seldom with much benefit to the parties concerned.

The road from Fahlun to Sala is generally hilly, sandy, and encumbered with stones: but the circumjacent country has a fine appearance. Sala, though inferior to Fahlun in size and elegance, is a place of some consideration, and constructed on a regular plan. It is situated in an extensive plain of gneiss, which is traversed by a bed of primitive granular limestone that often contains magnesian limestone. 'Magnesian limestone possesses a curious character, by which it may be very readily distinguished from every other species. If you give it a sharp blow with a small hammer, it phosphoresces, and the light continues some time after the stroke, putting you in mind of the cooling of a red-hot stone, only that the disappearing is much more rapid. This curious property was pointed out to me by Assessor Gahn, at Fahlun.' What is called the *silver mine* of Sala is a vein of galena that traverses the limestone-bed. Another vein, which runs in a parallel direction to the preceding, consists of copper pyrites and grey copper ore, but is poor in metal; and a third, which is not worked, is filled with iron of an inferior quality. These three veins are cut by some of smaller dimensions, which are very much inclined:

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* Besides these two kinds of veins in the lime-stone, there is still a third vein, which runs nearly from north to south and cuts through all the other veins in its way. It is consequently the newest of all the veins in the lime-stone of Sala. This vein is filled with basalt; it is nearly perpendicular to the horizon, and has a considerable thickness. I was much struck with this vein, as it contained the only specimen of basalt which I had met with in Sweden. If it were elevated above the surface, it would resemble the whyn dykes, so common on the west coast of Scotland. They usually consist of green-stone, which is a kindred rock to basalt. A vein of basalt in a primitive country, quite flat, and containing no remains of *flötz*, trap in the neighbourhood, will be admitted, I presume, to be an interesting and rather uncommon object.

Among the more uncommon specimens to be procured in the lead mine of Sala, are sahlite, sulphuret of antimony, and amalgam of silver. The last mentioned has not been observed for many years, and only three periods of its having been found are on record, namely, 1660, 1689, and 1696.

Södermanland, the next province through which the author journeyed, is represented as entirely primitive; consisting, as far as his observations went, of gneiss rocks, with some beds of mica slate, and primitive lime-stone. The surface is unequal, like that about Stockholm, and well wooded, without exhibiting a continuous forest.

From Nyköping, a small but prettily situated town, Dr. Thomson proceeded to Tunaberg, a copper mine of some notoriety on account of the cobalt ore which it also affords. This vein is in lime-stone, which traverses the native masses of gneiss. The cobalt crystals, which are of different dimensions and figures, are collected with care, reduced to a coarse powder, and made up into bags, which are exported to England, for the use of the potteries. — The iron mine of Utö, also in Södermanland, contains some rare mineral substances; as *spodumene*, *indicolite*, *apophyllite*, and *lepidolite*. *Scapolite* occurs in the iron mine of Sjösa,

Norköping, the fourth town in Sweden in point of population, is watered by the Motala, carries on some traffic in corn and other commodities, and has a considerable cloth-manufactory. — The valley of the Motala, warm and fertile, parcelled out into corn-fields, and thickly scattered with clumps of trees, recalled the features of a British landscape. — Linköping, the capital of the province of the same name, though containing only 3000 inhabitants, is much more handsome than Norköping, and has a very magnificent theatre; an object which is rarely found in the Swedish towns. — The length of lake Vetter is at least 80 English miles; while its mean breadth does not exceed twelve. Its waters are transparent, and of a

very considerable depth. 'Like all the other lakes in Sweden, it abounds in fish. These are chiefly pike and perch. No trouts are to be found in any of the Swedish lakes, nor in any of their rivers, except perhaps in some of the mountainous districts of the north, which I did not visit, and of which consequently I cannot speak.' The circumstance of this lake being liable to occasional agitations, without any apparent cause, is not (as the author would insinuate) peculiar to it; since the same phenomenon has been repeatedly observed in the lake of Geneva, and in some of the larger inland lakes in Scotland. According to a ridiculous notion of the Swedes, a subterranean communication exists between the Vetter and the lake of Constance, in Switzerland; so that their disturbances coincide!

On the geology of East Gothland, it would be superfluous to dilate, because it presents nearly the same mixture of primitive and floetz rocks which occurs in West Gothland. In mines it is less rich than most of the other provinces, but it possesses a few of copper and iron; and a beautiful marble, occasionally mixed with serpentine, is extracted from a quarry on the north side of Bronic bay.

Jönköping, a small town, delightfully situated on the south bank of the Vetter, is the capital of Smoland.

'The houses are almost all of wood, and covered on the roof either with turf or wood. The first constitutes by far the most common covering in all the Swedish towns. Slates are hardly ever seen employed as a covering for houses. All the houses that I saw covered with slates in Sweden were two, and both were in Stockholm, and standing beside each other. Like all the other Swedish towns, Jönköping has an open square, which may be considered as the market-place, round which houses have been built.'—

'Like all the other Swedish towns, Jönköping has been repeatedly burnt down. The last accident of this kind happened in 1790, and since that time the whole town has been rebuilt. The houses are still of wood, but large and comfortable. In this country we have a prejudice against wooden houses, on the supposition that they must be very cold: but the Swedish wooden houses are warmer than houses of stone. Entire trees, merely cut into the square form, are used for building the walls, and the joinings of them are made so close, by means of moss, that no air whatever can make its way between them. Wood being a worse conductor of heat than bricks, it is obvious that a thick house of wood must be warmer than one made of any other materials.'

About ten English miles to the south-east of this place is situated Mount Taberg, which has been so often described, and which has so much exercised the speculations of geologists. Dr. Thomson, who visited this singular hill, first briefly states the results of his own observations, and then gives the sub-

stance of those which have been published by Peter Ascanius, Bergman, Tilas, Napione, Hisinger, and Haussman: but, having already sufficiently extended the present article, we must forbear from touching on this interesting part of the work.

In traversing Smoland, on his route from Jönköping to Helsingborg, the Doctor passed over some of the worst peopled districts in Sweden. In a geological point of view, the whole of this extensive province is primitive, having the same base of gneiss that predominates in Sweden, and which here contains beds of quartz, felspar, and primitive trap. At Adelfors is a gold mine, which has been abandoned, because the quantity of metal obtained was found inadequate to the expence of working. The gold occurs in a bed of mica-slate, lying in gneiss, and in the form of veins accompanied by calcareous spar, &c. Copper pyrites, and bog-iron-ore, are also found in several places. — The only coal that has been discovered in Sweden is in the neighbourhood of Helsingborg: but it is worked under such disadvantageous circumstances, and sold at such a high price, that it promises to be of little benefit either to the public or to the proprietors. — From Helsingborg, the author prosecuted his way over considerable tracts of heath, and occasionally through woods of birch, oak, alder, and willow, to Gottenburg. On the 18th of October, he went on board an English packet, and, after a week's stormy passage, landed at Harwich.

Of the five supplementary chapters annexed to the itinerary, the first two are allotted to the state of Lapland and its inhabitants: they are compiled with judgment and ability from the most authentic sources, particularly from Linné's Tour, which we reported, some time ago, at considerable length. The third relates to such of the northern provinces of Sweden as did not fall under the author's own observation, but of which he has collected some valuable notices from works that are scarcely known in this country. In the fourth, we are presented with a general and connected view of Sweden, the joint result of observation and reading; forming, as it were, a condensed recapitulation of the leading topics discussed in the journal. The fifth treats exclusively of the political relations and resources of the country. — The Appendix exhibits a transcript of Mr. Nicander's Table of the *population and professions of Sweden*, before the separation of Finland.

We should be happy to linger in Dr. Thomson's instructive company: but the urgent calls of other claimants on our attention set bounds to our pages which we cannot pass; and we shall now close this respectable volume of travels, with expressing our wishes that the narrative had been somewhat more

lively, and the style more correct and matured. Many points in mineralogy, we are perfectly aware, cannot be distinctly settled, till the specimens to which they refer have found their way to the author's cabinet: but a careful revision of his manuscript might have removed some needless repetitions, and various slovenly, colloquial, provincial, and ungrammatical modes of expression*, which we shall be glad to see cancelled in a future impression.

ART. III. *Calamities of Authors*; including some Inquiries respecting their Moral and Literary Characters. By the Author of "Curiosities of Literature." 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. pp. 675. 16s. Boards. Murray. 1812.

FEW writers of the present day have embraced a more miscellaneous range of topics than Mr. D'Israeli. He has figured successively as a poet, a romancer, and a recorder of literary anecdotes; and the readers of our former volumes will, without difficulty, recollect reports of his productions in each of these different departments†. As years roll on, he seems to aim at taking a more ambitious flight, and to relinquish the composition of such familiar works as "Flim Flams," and the "Curiosities of Literature," in quest of the higher fame which is attendant on a picture of its "Calamities." He thus proves himself obsequious to the Homeric advice, *ἀείν ἀπιορεύειν*; or, to express ourselves somewhat in the metaphorical tone of the volumes before us, he may be said to have given over handling

* Such are, 'My travelling companion and myself went,' &c.—'Though I have met with some Englishmen—complain of it as too thick,'—'Whenever the state of their affairs render it necessary,'—'Gone snacks,'—'Smacks equally of the peasants,'—'Neither of these contain,'—'Where you are going, where you came from,'—'Neither furze nor broom are,'—'Was began,'—'Thick covered, thick scattered, &c.'—'Her power and prosperity is owing,' &c.—'A set, &c. are,'—The deplorable 'state of the finances, &c. awakened in the mind of every thinking man the necessity of taking some immediate step to save their tottering country,'—'Their health and hardihood is promoted,'—'Red appearance which distinguish them,'—'Neither of them are distinguished.' In page 183. 'It was' refers to the antecedent, 'The errors,' &c.—'The materials was,'—'Shades,' for *sheds*,—'To constitute an essential constituent,'—'The description and analysis was,' &c.—'The surface of which have,' &c. &c. &c.

† See M. R. Vols. iv. xii. xiii. xviii. xx. xxiv. xxix. xxxvi. xlv. N. S.

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the distaff, and to endeavour to poise in his arms the mace that befits an Herculean combatant. — The efforts of literary ambition have a claim to a favourable reception on the part of critics, and Mr. D'I. has discovered considerable erudition and animation in these volumes: but we can hardly carry the language of compliment so far as to congratulate him on his general success, according to our judgment, in this new department of composition. Yet the circulation of the work, we understand, has already been extensive.

Mr. D'I. begins by prefixing a table of contents, which wears at first a very systematic appearance, but is found on examination to have, like the late breach at St. Sebastian's, a very fallacious interior. The first section exhibits examples of unfortunate authors; the second travels, by a bold digression, into the question of copy-right; while the third returns, without apology or explanation, to that which formed the subject of the first; and the fourth carries us abruptly back to the age of Elizabeth and James I. Some readers may ascribe this arrangement to a desire of heightening the colouring of the picture by a disregard of vulgar rules; while others, less courteous, may suspect that the author, being aware that his materials were of a motley character, and conscious of not excelling in the task of methodizing them, has had no scruple in transferring that labour to his readers. Be this as it may, we have seldom met with a writer who takes greater pleasure in accumulating, in his table of contents, a list of melancholy titles. One section treats of 'disappointments,' another of 'hatreds,' a third of 'maladies,' a fourth of 'miseries,' and a fifth, attaining the climax of this enviable series, exhibits a picture of 'despair.' The kind of fame, at which the author seems to point in these volumes, is exactly of that description which Dr. Johnson considered as the proper object of the talents of Milton; — we mean, the power of "enforcing the awful and aggravating the gloomy:" but, however successful Mr. D'Israeli may be in the display of his talents, we cannot help viewing his predilection for *sombre* delineation as a most unlucky circumstance for the persons or subjects which come under the range of his oratorical powers; since, in his ardour to raise sympathy by a pathetic picture, his imagination becomes so animated as to make him overlook that attention to accuracy of fact and reasoning, which Quintilian gravely declares to be an indispensable ingredient in true eloquence. Of poverty, he seems to have a great horror, and he suspects its existence in cases in which it was probably never suspected before. Several of the gentlemen, whose circumstances he contemplates with such kind commiseration, would, to our knowledge, be not a little mortified,

tified, if they could rise from their tombs, and perceive that their pecuniary resources had been represented in so forlorn a condition.

We shall now suspend our general observations, and proceed to examine a few of the specific examples adduced in this production. 'The most successful author,' says Mr. D'Israeli, 'can obtain no equivalent for the labours of his life. What affectionate parent would consent to see his son devote himself to his pen as a profession?' This sweeping conclusion he endeavours to illustrate by examples taken from the lives of Smollet, Guthrie, Amhurst, and other authors by profession: but he regularly forgets to make the important admission that the individuals in question would, in all probability, have been exposed to equal sufferings in the exercise of any other occupation. His first example, Dr. James Drake, is allowed (p. xiv.) to have been guilty of acts of direct imposition; while Amhurst is said (p. 13.) to have 'passed through a youth of iniquity,' and to have been expelled his college. Is it, then, matter of surprize that Drake should have been severely prosecuted by government; or that Amhurst, after having acted the political prostitute, should have stood 'shivering at the gate of preferment, which his masters had for ever flung against him?' In the case of Smollet, the author's memory is treacherous; and no acknowledgement is made of the extent of the pecuniary emolument which Dr. S. derived from his literary labours: nor is it confessed that his chagrin was owing to other causes than those which arise out of the habits of an author. In fact, we may state generally, for Mr. D'Israeli's satisfaction, that, wherever we have analyzed the cases brought forwards by him as unfortunate, we have found that the fault lay with the individual. The bad success of Joshua Barnes, of critical memory, related in Vol. i. p. 250., comes no farther under the description of literary calamity, than as shewing that it is a very bad thing to want judgment, and to be of so fickle a disposition as to begin and leave unfinished nearly forty different works. The case of a Mr. Ritson (not the antiquary,) is pourtrayed very pathetically (Vol. i. p. 203.) by Mr. D'Israeli: but he forgets to allow that, at the early age in which Mr. R. was cut off by sickness, (twenty-seven,) he could scarcely have attained eminence in any profession. As he had, moreover, been educated for medicine, it is not fair to charge on literature the inconveniences which attend the slowness of advance in a different pursuit. With regard to Mr. Macdiarmid, the author of the *Lives of British Statesmen*, Mr. D'Israeli seems to speak (Vol. i. p. 198.) from personal observation; yet from individual knowlege we can assure him that nothing is more erroneous than his pathetic display

display of the career of that respectable young man. 'His whole life,' it is said, (p. 200.) 'was one melancholy trial; often the day cheerfully passed without its meal, but never without its page.' Now the plain truth is that Mr. Macdiarmid, the son of a clergyman on the other side of the Tweed, declining to be educated for the church, or to continue in the situation of a family-tutor, came to London with the view of studying for the bar, and of supporting himself in the interval by the fruits of literary exertion. In this attempt he bade fair to succeed; and so far from suffering poverty, he was more liberally paid for his time and labour than most persons of the same age in other lines of life. From these fair prospects he was cut off, in his 29th year, by a malady originating, not in the causes (of 'over-study and exhaustion') imagined by Mr. D'I., but in a feebleness of constitution, which threatened his dissolution long before he thought of entering on the occupation of an author.

Mr. D'Israeli's work is of so miscellaneous a description, that the title of "*Anecdotes of Literature*," or of "*Literary Men*," would have been much more appropriate than that which he has chosen to prefix. A considerable portion of his pages is made to relate to obscure characters; under the impression, probably, that whatever could be communicated relative to them would possess more of the interest of novelty than circumstances connected with men of notoriety. One of the most prominent personages in his first volume is Henley, commonly known by the name of *Orator Henley*, a cotemporary of Pope; who, after having passed some years at the University, and subsequently in the management of a school, became a preacher, with great affectation of eloquent effusions and theatrical attitudes. In the second volume, a large portion of room is given, under the title of *Literary Hatred*, to the well-known Dr. Gilbert Stuart, who was the projector and editor of a virulent Review which appeared at Edinburgh nearly forty years ago. Here, however, as in other parts, Mr. D'Israeli discovers a deficient attention to the investigation of facts; putting on record (p. 67.), with all imaginable composure, as if the matter were perfectly known to him, that the critique in the *Monthly Review* on Henry's *History of England* was written by Hume; — a statement which, from personal knowledge, we feel it incumbent on ourselves to contradict*. Various

* Mr. D'Israeli is right on another occasion, when he supposes (Vol. ii. p. 213.) that we derived from Dr. Langhorne himself his two sonnets relating to Collins, the poet, which were inserted in our

rious other characters are introduced into these volumes: but their history, however pleasantly told, is so little applicable to the elucidation of the object of the publication, or even of the title of the particular section under which they are exhibited, that the author must pardon us if we dismiss them as persons who have little or no business on the stage on which he has chosen to place them. We shall merely observe, generally, that every anecdote is collected, and every unsettled character who tried literary labour is brought forwards, with the view of contributing to darken the picture of distress; and it may be said of these volumes as Dr. Blair said of Ossian, "the note of melancholy is struck at the beginning and continued to the end." All this may be sufficiently pleasant to the author, if he belongs, as many will suspect, to that class of philosophers who find an enjoyment in doleful meditations: but for the sake of those who may be otherwise affected by such lucubrations, we cannot help wishing him a larger portion of that disposition which Hume declared to be "preferable to an inheritance of 10,000l. a-year." At this time of day, however, it would be vain to flatter ourselves with the hope of giving a more cheerful colouring to Mr. D'I.'s compositions, since our efforts were ineffectual when he came before the public in the bloom and vigour of youth. Sixty of our closely printed tomes have issued from the press, since we found ourselves obliged to close our report of his "Curiosities of Literature" in the following terms: "We are sorry to observe that this ingenious compiler has been more active in seeking and transcribing passages which expose the horrors and absurdities of bigotry, persecution, and superstition, than on any other subjects. We should have been better pleased to have seen him enlarge on the comforts arising to individuals from the practice of virtue and morality, and to society from the benign influence of Christianity." (M.R. Vol. xii. N.S. p. 182.)

Amid all the lamentations contained in these volumes, we meet with no endeavours to ascertain the *reason* which makes the profession of literature so unprosperous; and still less with any attempts to point out to the youthful labourer the means of avoiding the rocks on which his predecessors have been

our Review Vol. xxx. p. 120.; and it is both a pride and a pleasure to us to reflect that we exerted all our influence (whatever it might be) to induce the public to form a more just estimate than they had made of the merits of that beautiful writer, which have since been so amply recognized. See his *Oriental Eclogues*, Rev. Vol. xvi. p. 486.; the *Poetical Calendar*, Vol. xxx. p. 20. and 120.; and Langhorne's *Works of Collins*, Vol. xxxii. p. 293.

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wrecked. Such topics as these would call for the sober colouring of prose, and would ill admit of those dazzling touches with which a writer of fancy delights to transport the imagination of his reader. Having figured for several years as a poet and a novelist, Mr. D'Israeli seems very unwilling to forsake the regions of imagery, even when engaged in a work, the nature of which ought to prescribe a "dumb forgetfulness" of all that is not supported on the basis of deliberate and accurate inquiry. We must hazard, therefore, a few plain remarks on the subject, in consideration of the mischief which, however contrary to the author's wish, might be produced by discouraging statements on the modest youths who are desirous of devoting themselves to a literary life. Mr. D'I. observes (preface, p. 9.) that authors never discover the unprofitable nature of their occupation 'till they have yielded to an impulse, and adopted a profession too late in life to resist the one or abandon the other.' Now the fact, in our opinion, is that very few authors have made literature their regular occupation from their youth upwards. They are in general men who have been educated to a different profession; who from bad health, want of patronage, and much more frequently from deficient steadiness, have relinquished their proper employment, and have fallen, without previous design or calculation, into the situation of writers. To meet with a person regularly educated to the line of author would be as difficult as to meet with one destined, from his early years, to act in the capacity of news-paper editor or reporter of parliamentary debates. A mere reference to the names which we have mentioned as quoted by Mr. D'Israeli is sufficient to exemplify this assertion; Smollet and Drake having been destined for medicine, while many of the other *literati* who figure in these volumes belonged to the law or the church. The truth is that a literary occupation, as a profession for life, has very rarely obtained a fair trial. It is not long, said Dr. Johnson, since we became a "nation of readers;" and a still shorter time has elapsed since the adoption of certain ameliorations in our system of education, which promise to have a decided influence on the improvement of those who write as well as read. Again, in lamenting the disappointments of literary characters, it seldom happens that sufficient stress is laid on the necessity of steady application; or that it is frankly confessed that failure was the consequence of idleness and love of change. Now what mercantile man would anticipate a fortunate career to any person who should not devote eight or nine hours in a day, during a course of many years, to the prosecution of business? Or, in observing the example of successful progress in law or medicine, where do we find that the premium has been earned without

without a sacrifice of the same nature during the better half of life? Literature, however, has seldom had the benefit of such perseverance; having been followed by men whose time, as in the case of Robertson and Gibbon, was shared by different pursuits; or by the more numerous class who acknowledge the influence of no stimulant except necessity. In neither case is it likely, whatever be the ability of the individual, that the result should be so flattering as in the example of a profession which is pursued through life, with all the advantage of undivided application.

To the youth who is anxious to fix on a permanent profession, and whose choice is embarrassed by opposite considerations, we would urge that few estimates are less accurate than those which profess to exalt one profession above another, and to draw distinctive lines regarding occupations which a more comprehensive survey would teach us are nearly on a par with each other. The general error, which cannot be too frequently or too strongly exposed, is that of overlooking or failing to make due allowance for the ultimate power of industry and perseverance, in *every profession*. In tracing the career of distinguished individuals, it is common to ascribe the success of one to good fortune; of another, to the aid of friends; and of a third, with more liberality, to inherent genius. Many respectable authorities, however, have cautioned the youthful candidates to distrust these adventitious advantages, and to rely on nothing but long continued exertion. Such was the language of Sir Joshua Reynolds in his academical lectures on painting; such was that of Newton on philosophy; and such was that of Nelson on seamanship. Names more intitled than these to the reputation of native genius, it would be difficult to mention; yet it so happened that all these great men declared that they possessed no inherent talent different from other persons, and that all who would apply as closely might have an equal chance for reputation in their respective pursuits. The name of Porson conveys the impression not merely of extensive erudition, but of uncommon critical acuteness, or, as Dr. Johnson would term it, *perspicacity*; and his fame was so well established on the continent, that, before he had reached his fortieth year, a distinguished classical scholar at Paris took occasion to say publicly, "*Celui qui emporte aujourd'hui la palme de la langue Grecque est Porson.*" Yet this ornament of English philology acknowledged that his attainments were wholly the result of application; and that those who would read and transcribe, as attentively as he had done, would find themselves possessed of a power of memory which many good natured people were disposed to regard in him as a prodigy.

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The proportion of persons engaged in literature must necessarily be small in comparison with those who follow law, medicine, or the church; and the consequence has been that hitherto very little has been done to point out the precautions and arrangements which are requisite to prosecute it as a profession with respectability and success. Moreover, the few whose career has answered to this description have left us very imperfect records of their plan of study, and of the gradual progress of their attainments; so that each successive writer has in a manner been obliged to devise a course for himself. It accordingly happens that an author seldom finds himself in the right way as to writing, and sometimes even as to studying, until he has outrun a considerable portion of the active period of life. Some have held too miscellaneous a course; others have given their time and labour to subjects of little public utility or interest; and others have resigned themselves to the crude suggestions of booksellers, and have frittered away their time in *getting up* books on the spur of the moment. Booksellers, far from being backward in encouraging publications, are much more disposed to stimulate the inexperienced candidate to come before the great tribunal, than to urge to him the necessity of a long and cautious preparation. Hence that extraordinary overflow of books with which we are inundated, written without regard to method or accuracy, and frequently on subjects which to the community are matters of indifference. Plain, however, as these objections are, they are among the last which will occur to an unsuccessful author; the dullness of the public, and the general misfortunes of his profession, affording him a much more soothing explanation of his failure.

If Mr. D'Israeli is disinclined to acknowledge the emoluments of literary labour, he is abundantly liberal in his estimate of the profits of booksellers. Jacob Tonson and his nephew are said to have died (Vol. i. p. 29.) worth *in his opinion two hundred thousand pounds*; and, to judge from his general tone, he seems to have no doubt that the majority of booksellers have been and still are men of brilliant fortune. Yet, were he to amuse himself with giving a biographical sketch of bookselling speculators, as he has done of literary adventurers, we believe that he would find, on the average, a much closer approximation in their respective fortunes in life than he seems at present to be aware. It is natural to all men to deem their particular professions the hardest, for the plain reason that they are strangers to the difficulties of other occupations; and authors, above all, possess the power of promulgating their complaints far and wide, the press being, as Mr. Windham called it, a "trumpet with ten thousand tongues." Had the lawyer, the physician,

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or the divine, the same facility in delineating the disadvantages of his profession, many luckless candidates would rival Mr. D'Israeli in the exhibition of a picture of professional "Calamities." The truth, when we come to sift it to the bottom, is that, of the vast number who start in youth with sanguine hopes, comparatively few in *any* profession attain distinguished wealth or eminence : a much greater number are doomed to a state of mediocrity ; and a proportion, unfortunately too large, fail, or renounce the line for which they were educated. It would be deemed ridiculous to write a book in support of the notion that commercial pursuits are unproductive, yet the experience of the last three years is sufficient to shew that their advantages are greatly over-rated ; and the columns of the *Gazette* exhibit lists of failures to which Mr. D'I.'s enumeration is a mere trifle. If uncertainty and mediocrity be the lot of the majority of men engaged in trade, law, medicine, or the church, (professions pursued with constancy from the period of youth,) what better is to be expected when the persons employed enter irregularly and often accidentally on a new line of occupation ?

We may perhaps, on some future occasion, discuss more at length the method by which a gentleman pursuing literature as a profession may render it the ground-work of comfort as well as of respectability. To attain that object, it is in the first instance necessary to possess those assiduous and provident habits which lead to success in other lines, and the want of which forms so striking a failing in the heroes of Mr. D'Israeli's narratives. It is requisite likewise to be independent of book-sellers, of party-politicians, and of all who urge a writer to pursue a course which, for the sake of temporary notice or emolument, may be said to lay the axe to the root of his future reputation. In a pecuniary sense, this independence is less difficult than it may be imagined, since no occupation can be followed with less necessity of expence than that of literature. Retirement, for the greater part of the year at least, is essential to the progress of a scholar, and constitutes a remarkable difference between his situation and that of the lawyer or medical man, to whose success an expensive appearance is an almost indispensable preliminary. — Connected with the prosecution of literature as a profession, is the important question of the duration of *copy-right* ; a question which appears to us never to have been discussed in its true light ; we mean the method of rendering it most productive of advantage to the public. We have seen volumes of arguments on the law of the case : but we have sought in vain for a full exposition of that course which would be most conducive to the general dissemination of knowledge. The report of a Committee of the House of Commons, in the

last spring, is confined to a comparatively unimportant department of the subject, and does not even profess to discuss the practicability of combining the advantage of authors with that of their readers. We flatter ourselves, however, that the two are perfectly compatible; and that a prolongation of the term of copy-right would lead to the attainment of a most desirable result,—the substitution of a moderate number of good books for an almost countless quantity of such as are bad.

ART. IV. *Theological Disquisitions*; or an Enquiry into those Principles of Religion, which are most influential in directing and regulating the Passions and Affections of the Mind. I. Disquisition,—On Natural Religion. II. On the Jewish Dispensation respecting Religion and Morals. By T. Cogan, M.D. 8vo. pp. 487. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

ART. V. *A Theological Disquisition, on the characteristic Excellencies of Christianity*; or an Enquiry into the superior Assistance it affords, and Motives it contains, for the Practice of Virtue, Cultivation of the best Affections of the Heart, and preparing the Moral Offspring of God for permanent Felicity. By T. Cogan, M.D. 8vo. pp. 559. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1813.

IN proportion as the principles of religion approve themselves to the understanding, will be the hold which they take of the mind, and their influence over its passions and affections. Fanaticism affords no steady and permanent light, and its antipathy to reason is a decisive evidence of its suspicious character. Those, therefore, are the best friends of Revelation who endeavour to place its doctrines and injunctions in a clear and intelligible point of view, and who by evincing its reasonableness prove it to be “worthy of all acceptance.” We are acquainted with no modern writer who has laboured more assiduously to this end than the ingenious author of the *Disquisitions* before us; and, though we may hesitate in admitting some of his representations and arguments, we feel that it is our duty to hold him up as a pattern to all those who enter on theological disquisition. Dr. Cogan may certainly be charged with being too diffuse: but he has brought in to the province of theology a calm spirit of philosophic investigation, and a desire of following the leadings of truth in defiance of all system and authority: with such a habit of analyzing and comparing, of ascertaining the precise import of words and metaphors, and of distinguishing doctrines revealed in plain terms from those of mere inference, that it is impossible to attend him through these pages without wishing that all divines would imbibed his temper, whatever may be their opinion of his tenets.

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In these two volumes, he takes a very wide range, displaying in the first place the arguments on which Natural Religion is founded, and then entering into an examination of the distinguishing characters of the Jewish and Christian Dispensations. To impress his readers with a due notion of the high importance of the subject, he sets out with observing that 'Religion is every thing, or it is nothing; that it is the one thing needful, or it is a phantom of the brain.'

'If,' continues he, 'a being or beings exist, who possess the power, and the disposition, to interfere in the concerns of mortals, and who are perpetually engaged in conferring favours, or inflicting evils, a most important connection, a relationship exists also, which no human being can dissolve, or elude; and it becomes an act of the highest prudence to turn this connection to the best account.' Hence it becomes a matter of prime importance to consider 'the evidences of the Being and moral perfections of a Deity, deducible from the works of nature, and conducive to the practice of virtue.' Here the author follows Dr. Clarke's *à priori* argument, in his "Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God;" and he seems also to have availed himself of Dr. Balguy's "Inquiry concerning the Moral Perfections of the Deity, particularly in respect of Creation and Providence." In the chapter on the Ascription of Passions and Affections to the Divine Mind, Dr. Cogan observes:

'That great Being who is immutably the same, who is infinitely exalted above our versatile passions and affections, employs all his relative attributes to procure to the human race, what they are attempting to procure for themselves — *happiness*; and to promote this object, "his eternal thought moves on his undisturbed affairs." But although his purpose is immutably the same, yet his conduct must be adapted to the circumstances and situations of his creatures; manifesting kindness, severity, complacency, chastisement, according to the dictates of his wisdom.'

To the same purpose, Balguy remarks that "God determines himself by *moral fitness*, or acts perpetually according to the *truth, nature, and reason of things*. His justice, righteousness, truth, faithfulness, holiness, goodness, mercy, long-suffering, and whatever other moral characters may be ascribed to him, do all center in this idea, and may properly be reduced to this single principle. They are all comprehended in that *moral rectitude* or righteousness by which all the divine actions are unalterably conducted." Now, as the Deity acts uniformly on a principle of moral fitness, and wills the happiness of his creatures, it is clear, as Dr. C. adds, 'that the God whom we serve loves virtue, that he loves it as the most permanent source

source of happiness to the individuals who practise it, and that he will love those who imitate the benignity of his character.' The choice, therefore, of the virtuous to be the objects of reward is not an arbitrary act in the Deity, but results from his moral rectitude.

Having much ground to travel over in company with this *medicus religionis*, we shall excuse ourselves from taking any more than a superficial glance at the treatise on Natural Religion, and proceed to the second disquisition, 'On the characteristic Peculiarities of the Jewish Dispensation,' a subject which occupies the greatest part of the first of the two volumes before us. Of the divine origin of the Jewish dispensation, and the truth of the important and prominent historical facts noticed in the sacred books of the O. T., sufficient evidence may be produced; it is also clear to demonstration that the great object of the Mosaic system was to oppose idolatry, and to establish monotheism: but, before we descend to a minute and full exhibition of Judaism, it is necessary to enter into a critical examination of those documents from which we derive our materials, and to discriminate between the genuine and the interpolated text of the Bible; between true and apocryphal records. Dr. Cogan's Disquisition on the Jewish Dispensation floats too much on the surface of the English translation of the Bible to satisfy our diving propensities; and we are moreover of opinion that, in some instances, he will rather repel than conciliate infidels. We allude to his reckoning of the number of the Jews at the period of their emigration from Egypt at more than 2,000,000, and to his attributing to a divine command the atrocities exercised by the Jews on the Canaanites. Did it never occur to Dr. C. that it would require the operation of an incessant series of miracles (and he cannot accede to this point consistently with his position, see p. 437., that the Deity is an *economist of miracles*;) to increase 72 or 75 persons, in the space of 430 or rather of 212 or 215 years, (if we take Josephus's account, confirmed by St. Paul,) to upwards of 2,000,000? Did Dr. C. never ask himself what need had Pharaoh of such a vast number of brick-makers: how it was practicable for such a multitude to quit Egypt in a body, without long previous preparation; and moreover how it was possible that such a number should have resided in the land of Goshen? As to the pretext assigned by the Jews for the sanguinary extirpation of the Canaanites, we have on former occasions repeatedly declared that we cannot conceive that a benevolent God, who wishes also to promote benevolence in his rational creatures, could have given such an order to Moses and the Israelites, as is contained in the book of Deuteronomy. The evi-

dence of the Jews may be fairly suspected, since they are interested witnesses. It is easy for an invader to forge a divine order for taking possession of a country, and murdering men, women, and children : but it is not credible that God should give such an order. Dr. C. will probably urge the stale argument that the moral governor of the universe has a right to punish sinners, "when their iniquities are full," in the most exemplary manner, and in his own way : but we must remind him that a God of mercy would not sanction barbarity in his creatures, and that a God of wisdom would not adopt violent measures to obtain an object which he foresaw would not succeed. The pretext which the author urges for the cruelties practised on the Canaanites was the subversion of idolatry : but were either the Israelites, the inflictors of these *autos da fé*, or the poor Canaanites, cured of their passion for idol worship by this measure ? To the sin of idolatry the Jews were as prone as any of the nations, and in them it was more inexcusable. When they were partly (they were never *entirely*) in possession of Palestine, their idolatrous propensities equalled those of the Canaanites; and it would have been singular indeed that one nation, while manifesting an incessant preference for the grossest idolatries, should be sent by the Deity to extirpate another nation, and tell them that, because they were idolaters, they ought to be swept with the sword of vengeance from the face of the earth. Little did we expect from Dr. Cogan such reasoning as that which follows :

'The author of life bestows existence in whatever state he pleases, and hath a right to call out of existence whom he wills, and when he wills ; but he permitted these idolatrous nations to exist until they became ripe for destruction, by being incorrigible in themselves, and dangerous neighbours to the Israelites. He therefore enjoined their extirpation, predicting the fatal consequences that would ensue from a neglect or a partial execution of the command. Their total extirpation would have been no other than the summary execution of a sentence upon delinquents, who were guilty of crimes, which every well-ordered state would have punished in a similar manner.'

Here he takes for granted the point which is called in question, and which requires the fullest proof, viz. that God *enjoined* their extirpation. Moreover, no comparison exists between the execution of a sentence by a well-ordered state on delinquents, and the crusade of the Israelites in the territory of Canaan. We shall not pursue this subject any farther, but refer Dr. C. to Dr. Geddes's Critical Remarks on Deut. Chap. vii.

Adopting the prejudices of the Jews respecting their sacred books, some Christian writers seem to think that the divine legation of Moses cannot be maintained, unless the genuineness

of every book and passage in the Bible be admitted : but Dr. C., we should suppose, is too well acquainted with the history of the O. T. canon, not to know that the present state of the text requires the exercise of much critical sagacity, and that the credit of the Jewish dispensation demands it. Enough will be found of unquestionable genuineness to demonstrate the divine origin of that book ; and the discovery of some interpolations in the O. T. will no more destroy its general validity, than similar discoveries in the N. T. are found to weaken the authority of the Gospel. Nothing can more strongly prove the divine source of the Jewish law than its peculiar character. While all other nations of the earth were sunken in the grossest idolatry, and even while the Jewish people themselves displayed an equal predilection for its abominations, the system, which they were called by their lawgiver and prophets to adopt, consisted of the principles of the purest monotheism ; in which the unity and attributes of Jehovah were laid down in new and strictly philosophical language, and in which the moral and religious improvement of the nation was the grand object. The doctrines of the Jewish code are those of pure unsophisticated theism ; and the ceremonial and ritual ordinances which it enjoins, while they are introduced as necessary provisions against the danger of idolatry, are, by the most express clauses, guarded against superstitious abuse : sacrifices and offerings without correspondent piety and virtue being stigmatized as "vain oblations." The sublime doctrines concerning God, preached to the Jews, were not popular with them ; for this race were nearly on a level with the surrounding nations, and their selection to be a peculiar people was not so much for their particular benefit as for the general interest of human kind. It is surprising that, after such a series of miraculous interpositions, their minds should have remained so very obtuse ; and that they were not cured of their propensity to idolatry till the trying visitation of the captivity in Babylon. Here, indeed, their preference of monotheism was put to the proof and demonstrated ; and here, as Dr. C. will have it, (p. 414.) ' their religion took the deepest root, and by the miraculous interference of Divine Providence superstition was subdued in the center of its empire.' How does this appear ? The singularly striking miracles, said in the book of Daniel to have been wrought for the conversion of the court and people of Babylon, seem to have made scarcely any impression. Though the king professed to own the superiority of the God of Israel over his idol-deities, this profession did not restrain him from erecting an idolatrous image in the plain of Dura, nor from issuing a proclamation for its worship ; and the effect of this experiment is

decisive against the assertion that 'superstition was subdued in the center of the empire : ' since not a single Babylonian refused to prostrate himself before the king's golden image. Jews and Jews only protested against idolatry. When they returned from the captivity, they left the Babylonians as great idolaters as they found them ; and, in spite of the testimony of the Jews in favour of monotheism, it does not appear that polytheism lost ground till the coming of Christ. Judaism, as preparing the way for this glorious event, must certainly be regarded as a blessing to the world : but, as the twelve tribes of Israel were selected to be the depositaries of true religion, (not for any moral qualities which they especially possessed,) and as the end of their selection seems to have been answered, we do not think that the notion of their being hereafter to be gathered together and restored to Palestine is well founded. It is more probable that, when the period of their conversion arrives, they will be blended with the general mass of Christians.

As it will be seen by the complexion of our remarks, that we do not consider Dr. C.'s Disquisition on the Jewish Dispensation as conducted with the critical acumen and discrimination which we expected from so able a writer, we shall honestly own that we should have been better pleased if it had been shorter. Its substance is contained in the following particulars, exhibiting the peculiarities of this dispensation :

' I. The Jewish religion promulgates those doctrines relative to the Being and Attributes of God, which are so consonant with our reason ; and it enjoins the practice of all those moral duties, which are essential to human well-being.

' II. The Jewish history informs us of the manner pursued by Divine Providence, to preserve the doctrines of Religion and Morality from the corruptions of surrounding nations.

' III. The same history informs us, that the selection of the Jewish nation, for this purpose, was not for the exclusive benefit of that people, but introductory to a dispensation, by which all the nations of the earth were to be blessed ; and it enables us to trace the preparatory progress.

' IV. The union of the above peculiarities in the Mosaic dispensation, presents us with strong internal evidences of its divine origin.'

In the last chapter, containing general inferences from the whole discussion, it is maintained that ' the Jewish dispensation, and this dispensation alone, communicated to mankind at a very early period, while the reasoning powers were in their lowest exercise, such sentiments of the being, natural and relative perfections of God, as perfectly corresponded with the dictates of the most enlightened reason ; and it has promulgated, in the most ample manner, those religious and moral

duties which are essential to human happiness.' This position is fully established; and on this ground Dr. C. might have rested his argument, without embroiling himself with the question whether the Jews, on quitting Egypt, acted an honest or a dishonest part, by "*borrowing* jewels of silver and gold from the Egyptians." It was not necessary to prove the Israelites to have been always honest and honourable men, in order to vindicate the divine origin of their religious code. Supposing their conduct to have been exceptionable, both on their quitting Egypt and on their entrance into Canaan, no miracle was necessary, as Dr. C. seems to suppose, (p. 452, 3.) to keep them honest or merciful. It is sufficient to say that their creed does them more credit than their history.—We pass to the Dissertation on Christianity, in Vol. II.

To this part of Dr. C.'s present labours we attach the most value. Whether his views of gospel-doctrine will in every instance be admitted even by the rational Christian is matter of doubt: but the accurate method which he has adopted in examining and comparing Scripture, in order to arrive at a clear apprehension of its meaning, and the rules which he lays down to direct in dubious cases, are so extremely judicious that we yield them the most cordial approbation. The rules we shall transcribe:

' I. A belief in the infinite goodness of God is most consistent with the truest principles of reason. Goodness is an excellence which constitutes the excellence of knowledge, wisdom, and power. It is the most worthy source of all divine operations. It has been proclaimed by the Deity, and displayed in the Revelation of himself to the Jews. Upon the attribute of infinite benevolence is founded the injunction of our Divine Master, "Thou shalt LOVE the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy mind, and with all thy strength." For we love that alone which we understand to be excellent in itself, and productive of good; and supreme love pre-supposes supreme excellence in the object. Those sentiments, therefore, which we profess to derive from the New Dispensation, and are most consonant with the infinite benignity of God, must in themselves be the most eligible; and wherever scripture-phraseology, which every one admits to be greatly diversified, seems to be at variance with itself, those solutions of difficult passages in sacred Writ, which best correspond with the most exalted ideas of the Divine benignity, are to be preferred.

' II. It is universally admitted, that the different writers in the New Testament have adopted different modes of expression; and as many expressions must vary in their import, according to the connection in which they are placed, and the manner in which they are introduced, wherever there is a direct opposition of phraseology, seeming to advance principles or doctrines contrary to each other, the best method of judging of such equivocal passages is not by the

sound of words, but by the general tenour of the principles expressed by the same, or other writers, in more explicit terms. Such expressions are not to be considered as detached aphorisms, containing first principles, but as strong and impressive statements, which have a reference to principles previously advanced.

‘ III. Expressions obviously *metaphorical*, cannot be the basis of an hypothesis. The object of a metaphor is to explain, illustrate, or enforce; but not to establish first principles. It elucidates subjects not completely obvious, either by the force of analogy, or by adducing examples from things more clearly understood. It will give different colourings to a sentiment, derived from the subjects to which it alludes, and thus render it more lively, more pathetic, more degrading, more noble, more alarming, according to the impression which it is desirable to make upon the mind. But it always supposes, either that a previous attempt has been made to convince the judgment, or that some fact is known which we desire to render influential.

‘ IV. When the sentiments of theologians oppose each other, and the language of Scripture is adduced in support of their respective dogmata, the discriminating powers with which we are endowed teach us, that those opinions which are most consonant with reason should be preferred. Nothing irrational in itself can proceed from a wise being; and whatever appears to be irrational should be immediately suspected. All our intellectual faculties should be in exercise; but the decisions of the judgment should be slow and cautious. The wisest of beings permits us to hesitate in things obscure, that we may have time to balance between the possible and impossible, probable and improbable, credible or incredible. Our discriminating powers will finally discover some standard to which we can apply; and which will solve the difficulty. When, for example, our Saviour says, “Think not that I am come to send *peace* on earth, I am not come to send peace, but a *sword* ;” no Christian supposes that the grand object of his mission was to disseminate discord, foment animosities, and provoke bloodshed; notwithstanding the peremptory form of the assertion; for the reason of every Christian assures him, that this language of their Divine Master opposes the whole tenour of his own conduct; opposes the injunctions he lays down to promote peace and concord; and is destructive of that happiness promised to the lovers of virtue and goodness. The Christian is obliged, therefore, to solve these expressions in a manner congenial with the spirit of genuine Christianity; and to consider them, both as prophecies and warnings, given to his disciples, that the ignorance and evil passions of men, their prejudices, their pride, and arrogance of knowledge, shall render the gospel of peace itself the source of contentions, and of temporary disorders in the world, to which they themselves shall fall a sacrifice. In this instance we clearly see, that common sense directs a phraseology which, at first view, alarms and confounds, into its proper and instructive channel. Various other difficulties might be solved in a similar manner, were the dictates of common sense equally revered.’

Guided

Guided by these rules, this physician for the soul professes to examine, 1. What are the peculiar blessings presented to us by Christianity. 2. In what manner, or through what medium, these blessings are conveyed. 3. How great will be their extent?

The first head of inquiry induces him to enlarge, in distinct chapters, on the Benignity displayed in the Gospel,—on the parental Character of the Deity as revealed in the Gospel of Christ*,—on the future Inheritance of Sons,—and on the filial Confidence of a Christian, or the Nature of Faith.

Among the characteristic excellences of Christianity, is placed 'the *perfect example* of our elder brother, its founder;' and that part of our Saviour's life, (or, more correctly speaking, of his public ministry, *i. e.* of his life after he was designated by the voice from heaven to be the Messiah,) called his probation or temptation in the wilderness, is highly important, his conduct being stated to be a model for imitation to us under our several trials. Dr. C. therefore endeavours, without attempting 'to solve the difficulties of the surrounding scenery,' to afford such an explanation of the temptations of Christ in the wilderness as may be practically useful. In this matter he has adopted a plan of interpretation which had already been sketched by some modern commentators: but, by avoiding 'to solve the difficulties of the surrounding scenery,' he has left unanswered a question which will present itself to every reflecting reader, *viz.* How came it to pass that this portion of the life of Christ should be given in a style of narrative so different from the plain details in every other part of the Gospel?

Having adverted to that obedient and acquiescent state of mind, respecting the commands and decrees of heaven, which, in the language of Scripture, is termed *faith*, Dr. C. attempts to explain its true nature and properties by representing it as containing the following characteristics: 'It implies a firm belief in the *existence* and *agency* of some intelligent Being who is the object of it; a certain degree of *confidence* in the character and conduct of this Agent; and a respect to some *good*, in expectation or promise, which we are assured rests on a *solid foundation*.' To this view of the subject he subjoins these remarks:

* It is certain that the paternal character of the Deity was never so fully displayed as in the Gospel-dispensation: but Dr. Cogan is not correct when he says that the Heathen, without Revelation, never acknowledged the Almighty under this engaging character. The *πατήρ Ζεύς* and *Ζεὺς πατήρ* so often occurring in Homer, not to mention the quotation made by St. Paul from *Aratus*, (*Τὸ γὰρ καὶ γινώσκουσιν, Acts, xvii. 28.*) must rebut Dr. C.'s assertion.

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‘ The above statement of the nature and characteristics of faith will immediately discover to us the reason, why it is so forcibly enjoined in the Gospel dispensation. To believe in the Lord Jesus Christ is not an arbitrary requisition. It is not intended merely as a complimentary honour to the Saviour of the world, without any farther object ; but it is, in its own nature, a pre-requisite to the enjoyment, and the diffusion of the *blessings of the Gospel.*

‘ It has been remarked, that a discreet son will always entertain a filial confidence in the dispositions and conduct of his worthy parents. This is not only reasonable in itself, but it *flows spontaneously* from the connection, if no impediment presents itself to the performance of this duty. His parents are always *before* him. He enjoys blessings and advantages every day and every hour, which he *knows* cannot be derived from any other source. Thus it would be almost superfluous to say that a son has faith in the wisdom and kindness of his father. He has ocular demonstration of his parental attentions. But the great Parent is *invisible*. Surrounding objects have a tendency to exclude *him* from our thoughts. We perceive the immediate operation of natural causes, in the various events of our lives ; and upon these the imagination is prone to rest, as if they were the sole agents. The evidences of his existence are not obvious to our senses. They are to be obtained alone by consideration and reflection. They are the results of an inference, which demands the exercise of the reason and judgment. The knowledge of the perfections and agency of God, and of his intimate relation to all the creatures of his power, is derived from the same source ; and it equally demands the exercise of the understanding, to inspire conviction, and render them the objects of our belief. Thus, although a firm belief in such a character must inspire a confidential hope, yet it demands a certain process before it can be obtained. As a pre-requisite to coming to God with a filial confidence, we must *believe* that he is, and that he is the rewarder of those that diligently seek him. This, both in the language of reason and of Scripture, is an act of faith.

‘ In like manner, to believe in the Lord Jesus Christ, must be a necessary pre-requisite for receiving all the blessings of Christianity. In the ancient world, those who believed not in him, continued Jews or Gentiles. They were in a state of nature, which is always opposed to a state of grace. They were yet in their sins ; and consequently they continued in the character of the children of wrath, instead of being the children of the covenant, or of adoption. “ But to as many as believe in him, to them gave he power to become the sons of God, even to them that believe in his name.”

‘ They who believe not in the divinity of his mission believe not in his authority to proclaim the forgiveness of sins. Nor will they acknowledge themselves to be under an obligation to obey his precepts, or to imitate his example. They that believe not in his having been unjustly crucified must believe him to have been a criminal or an impostor. A belief in his death was a pre-requisite to a belief in his resurrection from the dead ; upon which every future hope depends. For

For as the apostle argues with the Corinthians, "If Christ be not risen, then is your faith vain, and ye are yet in your sins."

'Thus we see a belief in the divine mission of Christ, that he was pre-eminently the Son of God, and that he had power from above to proclaim pardon and reconciliation, is essentially necessary to the formation of the Christian character.'

The second part treats of the Mediatorial Office of Christ in a State of Humiliation, and of the Exaltation of Christ. Under the first of these heads, Dr. C. devotes a distinct section to an examination into the important ends obtained by the death of Christ; and the result of the inquiry is thus summed up:

'That Jesus Christ is the Saviour of mankind from the condemnation and punishment of eternal death; — that he hath changed a total extinction of being, which every one must acknowledge to be an equitable punishment of sin, into a temporary repose in the regions of the dead; — that he has purchased a right to this distinguished honour, by the perfection of his moral character, by his unmerited sufferings, by his voluntary submission to death, to an *ignominious* death, although, according to the moral constitution of God, death had no natural power over him; for he had not forfeited his natural claim to immortality as the Son of God, by any act of disobedience; — that the death of this righteous person was permitted, and appointed, by his heavenly complacent Father, on account of the beneficial purposes to be answered by it, in favour of his *offending* offspring. He was thus an example of perfect obedience, in circumstances the most severe and humiliating. He died that he might rise again. By his death, he bore witness to his own sincerity, in declaring himself to be the Son of God; and by his resurrection, his heavenly Father bore witness to the truth of his assertions. He died that *we* might live, that the sentence of condemnation might be repealed: — He bore witness to the possibility of a resurrection from the dead, in opposition to every physical appearance; and he became the first fruits of them that sleep. By his death he set a seal upon the new covenant of grace; by his resurrection he proved that the covenant was ratified in heaven; that God accepted of his services, and acknowledged him to be the medium of that salvation to be conferred upon a guilty race; according to which covenant, pardon is ensured to every sincere penitent; and a restoration to all those blessings which a reconciled parent possesses the power of bestowing.'

It is apparent from this extract that a middle course is here steered between those who maintain the doctrine of atonement and satisfaction, and those who consider the mediation of Christ as consisting merely in his being the medium of the Gospel-dispensation, as Moses was the vehicle of that which preceded it. A reference is very properly made to Dr. Taylor's Key to the Apostolic Writings, prefixed to his new version of the Epistle to the Romans; in which the principal words and phrases employed by the apostle in describing the Gospel-scheme

scheme are explained. Following this able commentator, Dr. C. paraphrases some portions of St. Paul's Epistles; and, in a long note, he combats the ideas that the sacrifices under the law were typical of the death of Christ, and that the anger of God towards sinners was appeased by this event:

'There is no solid foundation in the sacred Scriptures, for a doctrine upon which so much stress is laid. We may add that reason opposes it in every stage, and in every representation of it. It is a strange idea, that the anger of God can only be appeased by the death of his Son, in whom he was always well pleased! It is a strange idea that God cannot forgive a personal injury, without a full satisfaction, or some degree of compensation, which in effect annihilates an act of grace; annihilates a sense of obligation towards the offended party; and transfers it to the benevolent sponsor!'

A View of the Blessings promulgated to the World in the Gospel, which is the title of the third part, leads to a laboured examination of the three hypotheses of the eternal misery of the wicked, of their annihilation, and of universal redemption. The parental character of the Deity being the predominant theme of this philosophic theologian, it may be presumed that he neither advocates the revolting doctrine of the eternity of hell-torments, nor countenances the gloomy theory of annihilation. His creed offers a more animating prospect, and he reasons at great length on 'the Probability of Universal Salvation.' He protests against the literal interpretation of the *metaphorical* language employed in Scripture for describing the future punishments of the wicked, and observes, in favour of his hypothesis; 'It is possible that their punishments shall prove corrective, which will answer an important end; and not an act of vindictive justice merely, which will answer no end to any being whatever.' — "'The last enemy (says the apostle) that shall be destroyed is death.'" Can the last enemy be destroyed, if sin and misery are to be of eternal duration? Can that death be destroyed, which holds myriads of beings in an eternal captivity? Can death be destroyed, without the introduction of universal life?"

An *argumentum ad hominem* is addressed to the stickler for eternal punishment, which deserves to be quoted:

'If the eternal misery of any portion of the human species, or their final destruction, after sufferings to which there are no parallels upon earth, be doctrines according to truth, then is the *propagation of the human species to be placed among the most atrocious of crimes*. No man who pretends to justice or humanity would purchase a transient gratification, under the *possibility* of involving any other persons in absolute ruin.' — 'How more than rash, how *sinful*, must be their conduct, who seek their own personal gratifications, with such a risk, with such a barbarous foresight? with the *moral certainty* that they
are

are propagating the misery of those very beings for whom they feel such strong affections ; and for whose felicity they would sacrifice their own lives ! Let them compare the horrid evils they perpetuate, with the momentary injuries induced by the voluptuary, in his greatest excesses ! If they appreciate character and conduct according to these principles, they will either be compelled to consider celibacy as an incumbent duty, or to renounce their creed !'

Dr. C. demolishes, in one of his notes to this chapter, the argument for eternal punishment, as built on the assumption that 'sin' must be infinitely malignant because committed against an infinite Being, and therefore ought to be infinitely punished.' This note is a specimen of clear and conclusive reasoning ; and, with the chapter to which it belongs, we recommend it to the careful perusal of Christians. We must pass over the chapter on 'The characteristic Evidences of Christianity,' in order to notice one reflection in the author's general conclusion at the end of the volume. Though Dr. Cogan cautiously avoids the character of the polemic, he cannot keep perfectly clear of controversy : but his inquiry into the doctrines of the Gospel is not calculated to irritate those who differ from him in sentiment ; on the contrary, his work is designed to allay the fierceness of doctrinal disputation, and to promote, in the Christian world, love towards God and man :

'We would ask,' says he, 'those Christians, who manifest such a fond predilection for controversial subjects, whether they be not spending too much of their precious time, and misapplying the hour which should be devoted to the worship of the universal Father, and training up his rational offspring to glory, honour, and immortality, by perpetual discussions upon speculative points, and subjects of doubtful disputation ?'—

'It is an historical fact, that all the doctrines which were preached by the apostles, when they were sent forth, endowed with miraculous powers, to *preach the Gospel*, were those, which we have described as *primitive doctrines*, believed by Christians of every denomination ;'—'the natural influence of which is to promote harmony and brotherly love. They cherish the sentiment that we are one large family, gratefully surrounding the throne of God, in the character of a reconciled parent.—We all agree that Christ died, and rose again, and hath provided a heavenly inheritance for his faithful followers.—But his faithful followers *obey* his commands ; and his commands are to *love one another*. We all agree, that he came to proclaim pardon and remission of sin to the penitent ; and we all know that much of our criminality consists in the hatreds, discords, and oppressions, so prevalent among the children of God. But, such is the perverseness of men, that this very embassy of mercy has *augmented* our animosities ! Disgraceful contests have arisen concerning the *person of the ambassador of peace*, or the precise *share* he may have in the proposals of reconciliation ! and thus do the professed supplicants for grace augment the very crimes which he came to pardon !'

These

These remarks are well meant, and manifest a good heart ; but it seems to be a settled point among the various sects, that supposed heterodoxy must be followed by real hatred.

The analytical complexion of these disquisitions will make them appear dry to many readers. In order to be perspicuous, the author has indulged in prolixity and repetition ; and, to escape all confusion of ideas, he has introduced suitable definitions and explanations. His mode and temper of inquiry merit much praise : but we must repeat our opinion that he has been unnecessarily diffuse. We shall add, however, that, if his example be followed in our attempts to ascertain the genuine doctrines of Scripture, we must have a better chance of success, than by copying those who quote and string texts without discriminating between plain and metaphorical language, and who think that the clear definitions of philosophy may be disregarded in theology.

ART. VI. *Literary Anecdotes of the Eighteenth Century* ; comprising Biographical Memoirs of William Bowyer, Printer, F.S.A., and many of his learned Friends ; an incidental View of the Progress and Advancement of Literature in this Kingdom during the last Century ; and Biographical Anecdotes of a considerable Number of eminent Writers and ingenious Artists. By John Nichols, F.S.A. 8vo. 6 Vols. and a separate Volume of Index. 6l. 6s. Boards. Printed for the Author. 1812.

THE venerable author of these well-filled volumes has long occupied a distinguished station among the printers and publishers of London, and has been especially remarkable for his assiduous and persevering patronage of domestic antiquarianism. Not a county-historian writes, without being indebted for much of his topographical archæology to those hoards of which Mr. Nichols dictated or facilitated the compilation ; and no literary biographers search for materials, without deriving advantage from the minute accuracy of his extensive *Magazine* of collections. If at times a superfluity of micrological detail, a predilection for clerical topics, a complacency in mediocrity, or the garrulity of elderly leisure, seems to overspread his pages, let us recollect that of all recorded knowledge the excess can be remedied by oblivion, but that the *lacuna* can never be supplied by the second-hand toil of posterity.

This copious collection of literary anecdotes is in fact a new and greatly enlarged edition of the Memoirs of William Bowyer, the celebrated printer, which were first published in quarto during the year 1782, and noticed in two articles of our sixty-seventh volume. The plan of the book is to relate the annals of

of the printing-house. Of every work undertaken there, the title is given in the order in which it was commenced ; and to this list of epigraphs various notes are attached, containing anecdotes of the authors, or revealing the names of anonymous writers, or preserving some connected literary correspondence, or supplying other explanations, advertisements, criticisms, and illustrations. Thus a great mass of bibliographical information has been compiled ; the consultation of which is facilitated by references internally interspersed, and so skilfully contrived as to be frequently prospective. Sometimes, the text itself is interrupted by extensive digressions ; and, indeed, digression saunters out of digression with such labyrinthine intricacy, that we are repeatedly amazed after so much way to find so little progress. The author himself, like another Dædalus, seems to be every where at a loss for an issue. In fact, the annals of the Bowyer press, not the annals of British topography, constitute the proper topic of the author ; and every departure from this aim and end is an inconvenient inroad over the province of other bibliographers. For want of resisting the love of communication, the task of perusal is rendered detaining, and frequently tedious. A feeling of incompleteness is excited by the very excrescences. Chip, pare, and retrench, and the remainder would acquire an air of completion, and a neater retundity.

Not, however, with needless wanderings from the road indicated by the text, or with idle expatiations into the contiguous region, is the author contented. He studies deviation, and deems it meritorious to swerve from his course, if he can in consequence take under convoy one vessel more. To every volume an ample appendix of documents is subjoined, under the title of 'Essays and Illustrations,' which annotate the notes to the original text : yet even to these is attached a long catalogue of farther 'additions and corrections.' The house has its connecting arcades and wings, the wings have a lean-to, the lean-to has a shed, and the shed has an *ash-pit* and a dog-kennel. In the original form of the work, two hundred and fifty leaves seem to have been the allotted and sufficient weight of every volume : but each, by successive distensions, has been at last dilated into a heavy tome of seven hundred and fifty pages. In its thinnest condition, it afforded ground for complaining that it was heterogeneously crammed, and stuffed almost to bursting ; in its present shape, the paunch is actually broken, and, like the pouch of Jack the giant-killer, scatters its hasty-pudding over table, bench, and floor.

So desultory and incoherent is the character of the information here accumulated, that a reviewer might be allowed to

cast *Virgilian* lots for a probationary specimen, and to infer his verdict from a chance-dip into the laminated heap. We shall, however, be more industrious, particular, and select in our attention. The prevailing or general character of the composition resembles that prolific mushroom, which under the tinged grass pushes from its stalk a circular ramification of subterraneous woolly filaments, from each of whose extremities springs a new mushroom, which in its turn attempts to encircle itself with another fairy-ring. Still, those fairy-rings which have surrounded the foot-steps of poetry, or attracted the lighting of philosophy, or nurtured the ivy of learning, may demand a preference of approach.

In Vol. i. p. 48., some notices occur of Hickes, whose works deserve to be collected, reprinted, and augmented with those illustrations which Suhm, and the Danish antiquaries, have since added to the treasury of northern lore.—At p. 172., Brook Taylor is mentioned. His treatise on the Principles of Perspective, to which Kirby in 1755 and Malton in 1776 both allude in their title-pages, had never the fortune to become popular. His *Contemplatio Philosophica* is still inaccessible to purchasers, though reprinted, with some account of his life, by the pious care of his grandson Sir William Young. Surely, if a sort of Clarendon press were attached to the Royal Society, in which the works of their members could be printed free of expence, there are reputations connected with the less popular forms of science, which would not be so liable as they now are to neglect or obscurity.

P. 272. Chishull is introduced, and the Asiatic antiquities which he illustrated. The following letters from him to Dr. Mead constitute a fit appendix to Middleton's elegant dissertation *De Medicorum apud veteres Romanos degentium conditione*:

"It is with the greatest pleasure that I find myself honoured with any command of yours; and I shall be truly glad if any thing noted under the following heads may fall in with your design.

"I. The chief honours and rewards given to some eminent Greek physicians are at once noted by Pliny; l. vii. c. 37.

"II. Those bestowed on Hippocrates may more particularly be noted in the *Δόγμα Ἀθναίων* among his Epistles, and his life from Serranus; and the history as to that matter is the same whether those pieces be genuine or not.

"III. Besides these, Erasistratus was in great honour in the court of Seleucus and Antiochus Soter, upon his discovering the distemper of the latter; which see in Plutarch's life of Demetrius, and Appian in Syriacis. The reward of a hundred talents mentioned by Pliny, l. xxvi. c. 1. was for curing the same Antiochus of another dangerous illness. The scarcity of instances of this sort has been owing to this, that physic was not antiently professed as now-a-days,

in the nature of a liberal science, but was always joined with pharmacy and chirurgery, and so practised in great measure by illiterate persons.

"IV. From hence a ready answer may be given to those severe satires of Cato and Pliny against *Medici* and *Medicina*, l. xxvi. c. 1. as also from the virtuous and pious principles of the oath of Hippocrates, particularly the obligation to teach *ἅντι μισθῷ*, and *ἀγῶς καὶ ἐπίης διατηρῆσαι βίον*, κ. τ. λ.

"V. The same calumny may be answered from the contrary character of Pliny, l. xxv. c. 2. Pythagoras and Aristotle both much addicted to this noble study. The former was the first that wrote of the virtue of herbs, Plin. xxv. 2. He kept it a secret, as he did his other attainments. But the latter, says Ælian, l. v. c. 9., Athen. l. viii. c. 13., *Φαρμακοπωλὴς ἀνεφάνη*, was a professed apothecary. If he condescended to a shop according to the custom of those times, he yet shewed himself above it by his work entitled *Ἱατρικὰ*, besides what he wrote concerning plants and anatomy.

"VI. It was this character that first endeared Aristotle so much to Alexander the Great, whom, upon his first coming to him, he cured of a great illness; and because he enjoined him to use much ambulation for the confirming of his cure, this by some has been taken to be the reason of Aristotle's being surnamed the Peripatetic. Laertius.

"VII. Alexander himself learned of Aristotle to study and even to practise physic, (Plut. in vit. Alex. c. 13., p. m. 668.) *δοκεῖ δὲ μοι καὶ τὸ φιλατρῖν Ἀλεξάνδρῳ προσεφασθαι μᾶλλον ἰτρῖν Ἀριστοτέλῃς ἢ γὰρ μόνον τῇ θεωρίᾳ ἠγάπησεν, ἀλλὰ καὶ ἰαστῶν ἐκδοθῆαι τοῖς φίλοις, καὶ συντάττει διερρηκτίας τινὰς καὶ διαβάτας.*

"VIII. The historian has well expressed it *μᾶλλον ἰτρῖν*: for it was usual with Alexander to bestow the greatest marks of esteem and honour on other physicians: Witness the story of his cure by Philip of Acarnania, and the signal honour paid to that physician, as by the King himself, so by his whole army. Alexander shewed him, says Arrian, (l. ii. c. 4.) *ὅτι πρὸς ἑστῇ αὐτῷ φίλος* and the whole army, says Curtius, l. iii. c. 6., *grates habebant tanquam prasenti Deo*.

"IX. Herophilus and Erasistratus, l. xxix. c. 1., were those who first made learning necessary to physic; which being a thing of great expence and pains, Pliny tells us, the school of Herophilus did not long subsist. *Deserta deinde et hac secta, quoniam necesse erat in eâ scire literas*. Of his school, see Pliny, l. xxvi. c. 2.

"X. But we learn from Strabo, at the end of book xii., that the school both of the one and the other flourished till about his time in Asia, the one near Laodicea, and the other at Smyrna. He there names as masters of these, Zeuxis, Alexander, and Hicesius. And Athenæus often mentions the same *Ἰκίσιος* as an author, and l. ii. c. 18., *Μερόδιμος Ἐραιοστράτιδας Ἰκίσιος φίλος*. Pliny, *Hicesio non parva autoritatis medico*. The faces and characters of all these we have still preserved in coins at Smyrna; with many others brought by Mr. Sherard, and now reposed in the Duke of Devonshire's cabinet; which city allowed that particular honour to those professors. They are found with their faces stampt on one side, and their profession

noted on the other, by figures in a sitting posture, with the finger advanced to their lips in token of that silence which the profession was enjoined by the oath of Hippocrates. And before the face of some is an asterisk, of others a thunderbolt; the meaning of which marks is told us by Laertius in the life of Plato, *viz.* *κεραῖων* implying τῇ ἀγωγῇ τῆς φιλοσοφίας and ἀστρίσκος, τῇ συμφωνίᾳ τῶν δογμάτων.

"XI. This physic-school at Smyrna was adjoining most probably to the temple of Esculapius, the ruins of which are still extant near a large fountain of extreme cold water, called Arco-bascar, situate, as is mentioned by Pausanias, near the sea. (Pausan. l. ii. c. 26.) In this place was dug up about thirty years ago, and sold by Sir Philip Jackson then resident at Smyrna to Mons. Galland, and by him reposed in the gallery of Versailles, a fine bust inscribed,

ΜΑΡΚΟΣ ΜΟΔΙΟΣ ΙΑΤΡΟΣ ΜΕΘΟΔΙΚΟΣ.

The word *Μεθόδικος* intimating the sect of Modius, as *Ἰννα* *Μεθόδου* does the like in another printed inscription. What it was is explained by Celsus, l. i. c. 1., *Harum observationum medicinam esse quam μέθοδον Græci nominant, &c.* Among the *Διηγεώσεις* of Athenæus, in *argumento operis*, are registered with great honour the characters of Daphnus of Ephesus, as well as the renowned Galen, *ἰατρὸς τῆς τέχνης*, &c. &c.

"XII. Another inscription found in the same place, and engraven under a head, now lost :

ΗΕΡΜΟΓΕΝΗΣ ΧΑΡΙΑΔΗΜΟΤ Χ. Τ. Λ.

"II. Honoured Sir,

Nov. 13. 1723.

"I am heartily glad to understand that we are like to have the happiness of seeing your oration public. The medals are not yet in books. Some have taken them to be so many magistrates of Smyrna; but that they are philosophers and physicians, is luckily a discovery of my own. I hit upon the thought by observing that physicians are often cited with the addition of *Ἡροφίλου*; and *Ἐρασιστράτους*, as by Erotian in voce *Ἀμβτ.* *Στράτων μὲν ὁ Ἐρασιστράτης, Ζήνων δ' ὁ Ἡροφίλος.* After this, that there was a school of each according to Strabo, l. xii. *Διδασκαλείον Ἡροφίλου ἰατρῶν μέγα ὑπὸ Ξυλίδος καθάπερ ἐν Σμύρνῃ τὸ τῶν Ἐρασιστράτων ὑπὸ Ἰεσίου.* Upon this foundation we are at no loss for the explication of the following medals:

1. "*Caput laureatum sine epigraphe.*

"Rev. ΣΜΥΡΝΑΙΩΝ ΕΒΕΤΛΣ: *figura virilis sedens, manu dextra ad os levata: ante faciem κεφαλήν nota institutionis philosophiæ.*

2. "*Caput laureatum sine epigraphe.*

"Rev. ΣΜΥΡΝΑΙΩΝ ΙΚΕΣΙΟΣ: *figura eadem. Vide Numismata Kempiana, p. 82.*

3. "*Caput laureatum sine epigraphe.*

"Rev. ΣΜΥΡΝΑΙΩΝ ΕΥΚΛΗΣ: *fig. eadem; ante faciem, ἀστροσχος nota συμφωνίας τῶν δογμάτων, cum monogrammate urbis Smyrna.*

4. "*Caput laureatum sine epigraphe.*

"Rev. ΣΜΥΡΝΑΙΩΝ ΠΑΣΙΚΡΑΤΗΣ: *fig. eadem, cum duplici monogrammate, Smyrna urbis et sectæ Hierophiliæ uno, ac sectæ Erasistrateæ altero, i. e. EPA:*

"Horum

“ *Horum κέρει, cum tota ipsius schola ; i. e. τῶν ἀπὸ τοῦ κέρει, λέγε-
ται ab Erotiano in voce Κερμαίον. Hicetius a Plinio, l. xxii. c. 4.
ut non parve auctoritatis medicus. Pasocrates Menodoro adiungitur
in inscriptione Douana. Menodorus vero Hicetio apud Athenaeum,
l. iii. c. 9. Μηνώδης, ὁ Ἐρασιστράτους Ἰκτινίου φίλος.*

“ Of these medals, the first, third, and fourth, are now before me, with about twenty others of the same type and character. Being mistaken for unknown magistrates, they were esteemed the refuse of Dr. Sherard's medals. However, many of a fairer stamp and better preserved were by him reposit in the cabinet of his Grace the Duke of Devonshire ; particularly an Ἰκτινίου, and if I mistake not, an Ἀλξάνδρος, being the other master mentioned by Strabo. I hope to be introduced by Dr. Sherard to the favour of consulting them in his Grace's rich collection. In the mean time these, Sir, with myself, are absolutely yours ; and being obliged to be in town for waiting at court on Friday, I will attend you with them at your house at what time you please to command me, by a line directed to, &c.

E. Chishull.”

An account of the Kit-cat club, given at p. 295., throws light on the history of Whiggism. Tonson's epitaph, which closes this narrative, was afterward appropriated by Dr. Franklin.

Saint Amand's Historical Essay on the Legislative Power of England was published in 1725 by Mr. Bowyer. This work shews learning, liberality, and merit : but no anecdotes are collected concerning the author. Is his life a neglected piece of biography, or is the unusual name fictitious ?

The passage of Virgil is discussed at p. 356. which is commonly printed thus :

“ *Inter odoratum lauri nemus, unde superne
Plurimus Eridani per sylvam volvitur amnis.*”

We should prefer to read *superbè* instead of *superne* : there is no sense in Dryden's version,

“ Beneath a laurel shade, where mighty Po

Mounts up to woods above, and hides his head below :”

whereas the expression would be entirely natural,

Beneath a fragrant laurel shade, whence flow
Proudly the ample waters of the Po.

The antiquities of Constantinople, by John Ball, were printed in 1729. This splendid and learned publication is too little known for its merit. In the main, it is a translation of Gyllius, enriched with far-fetched notes, and embellished with cuts that have outlasted some of the monuments which they represent.

Some anachronic misplacements of intelligence occur in this volume. For instance, at p. 300. particulars are given of the

Woodfalls, who died lately, and, a little farther on, of the Ilives, who flourished half a century earlier: one of whom, Jacob Ilive, endowed a pulpit for teaching the doctrine that human bodies are inhabited by fallen angels; this earth being a purgatory, in which they have the opportunity of recovering a celestial mansion.

An aukward intrusion is the notice, under the year 1730, of the antiquities of Berkshire by Elias Ashmole. That work was not printed at the Bowyer press, and has no obvious connection with the regular subject of this book,

In the second volume, under the date 1733, is announced the impression of Dr. Madden's *Memoirs of the Twentieth Century*. Out of an edition of 960 copies, more than nine hundred were called in and destroyed; and it was conjectured that the author had accepted a sum of money for this suppression. The title is said to have suggested to Mercier the plan of his celebrated and entertaining *Year 2440*.

On Duckett's *Atheistical Letters*, and the proceedings respecting them in 1738 and 1739, a manuscript-correspondence of Dr. Tunstall with the Earl of Oxford is noticed, which is now preserved among Birch's manuscripts in the British Museum. There are two causes of terror, or notes of alarm, which the clergy are apt to carry to excess; the dread of irreligion, and the dread of innovation. So prone is the mass of mankind to low superstition, and so necessarily connected with imperfect instruction is some form of belief, that, wherever tolerance exists, some religious feeling will always prevail. If philosophers, or fanatics, weed out any particular species of opinion, others are germinating, and ready to occupy the vacant soil. Old doctrines are dear to old families; they have a certain nobility about them, which apologizes for a reception independent of their merit: but the numerous and upstart classes of the people would like to carry with them into higher life their popular schisms, and would lend to any new establishment of their favourite creeds an instantaneous, zealous, and crowded adherence. Controversy is useful, as a game of intellect: but the distribution of opinion among men is little affected by it, and must for ever subsist nearly in the same proportion and in the same variety as at present. The many seek for grounds of faith, while the few seek for grounds of doubt; the poor prefer an austere, and the rich prefer a liberal morality. Two hundred years ago, Father Mersenne calculated that, among every thousand readers of theological controversy, were a hundred Calvinists, ten Socinians, and one Infidel; in our own times, we have a similar mixture of fanaticism, of compromise, and of audacity.

Under

Under the year 1749, a drama of Henry Brooke, intitled *Jack the Giant-killer*, is advertised. The works of this eminent dramatist were collected in 1778 in four volumes octavo. Though remembered at Dublin, they are in this country less prized than they deserve: *Gustavus Vasa*, and the *Earl of Essex*, have great merit.—Under the year 1753, something occurs towards a literary history of the *Jew-bill*. Mr. Bowyer wrote in its behalf. Warburton says bitterly, but not unjustly, “I never met with so much wickedness of a persecuting spirit on one side, and so much nonsense on both, as in this pamphlet-controversy.” It was a culpable weakness in the government to withdraw a measure which was truly honourable to its tolerance, at the instigation of a clamor so vulgarly irrational and consequently so transient. Public opinion ought to be consulted and respected: but that opinion alone deserves adherence, which maintains its station because it is anchored on the enduring principles of justice. The shifting side of mob-favor, the applause of the populace, and even the alarms of county-freeholders when encouraged by a clerical faction, might, with glory to the Pelham ministry, have been disdained.

Anno 1758. A Report from the Committee appointed to inquire into the original standard of weights and measures. This document, though little known, has great merit, and served as a model to those reports of the Constituent Assembly of France, which ordained an uniform and scientific standard of mensuration for that country. — 1760: Dr. Brown is mentioned as the author of some dialogues of the dead: but his tragedies of *Barbarossa* and *Athelstan* are better known. In the same year, many interesting particulars are collected respecting Mrs. Frances Brooke; whose novels, (especially *Emily Montagne*;) and whose dramatic poems, (especially *Rosina*;) enjoyed much public favour.

In 1762 occurs the publication of a book now become rare, *Colonia Anglicana Illustrata*; which contributed to found a trans-atlantic patriotism, and a jealousy for chartered rights, that were destined to produce a premature separation and an independence during minority, which America and Britain have still to lament.

In 1764, Costard's Tracts began to appear, which ought to be collected and republished, and from which recent scripture-critics have borrowed many speculations. By his dissertation on the stone which fell into *Egospotamos*, he excited a curious and productive attention.

The Appendix, No. iii., relative to that excellent historian, Mr. Thomas Carte, whose widow married into the Norfolk family of *Jerningham*, preserves much curious matter concern-

ing his life and works. No. iv. relates to the orientalist Jackson. No. ix. to the Roman historian Hooke.

In the third volume, under the date 1768, occurs a publication of the liberal Archdeacon Blackburn, *Concerning the Title of Papists to a Toleration on Protestant Principles*. In the present age, a charge would perhaps appear illiberal, which then was thought to employ the powers of charity in stretching to relaxation the bonds of discipline.

1769. We have here some comments on Wood's *Essay on the original Genius of Homer*. The earliest writer who cites Homer is Herodotus : Hesiod did not know Homer's poems ; and the earliest writer, who cites that life of Homer which is ascribed to Herodotus, is Clemens Alexandrinus : Plato did not know that life. Of course, Homer flourished between Hesiod and Herodotus, and his biographer between Plato and Clemens. This biography, then, is an Alexandrian forgery in the name of Herodotus ; and it is so glaringly a bookseller's speculation, that all the poems forged at Alexandria in Homer's name (such as the *Batrachomyomachia*) are officiously quoted in it ; and anecdotes are contrived to account for their having been written. All these anecdotes, connected with the advertisement of surreptitious poems, are to be received with peculiar mistrust. From Homer's writings, and especially from the *Odyssey*, it is clear that he had travelled much about the Archipelago, particularly by sea ; still, in the description of Spartan territory, (see the 581st and following verses of the second book of the *Iliad*,) we discern a precision of topography which is characteristic of local residence. Sparta was eminent at a more early period than Athens, and Lycurgus long preceded Solon. Hence Sparta had in some degree acquired the lead, or sway, in Greece, before the Athenians were at all competitors for it. The Spartan language was Greek ; and the Attic, or Ionic, or Doric, was to be insulted with the humiliating denomination of a dialect. This earlier civilization of Sparta renders it naturally probable that Homer may have flourished there ; and, as he chose a national theme, the rape of Helen, wife of the King of Sparta, it is the more evident that he kept in view a Lacedæmonian audience. Now let us turn to a remarkable passage in Plutarch's biography of Lycurgus, which well deserves to be transcribed at length, on account of the reflections which it is adapted to excite :

" Among the friends gained by Lycurgus in Crete was Thales, whom he could induce to go and settle in Sparta. Thales was famed for wisdom and political ability. He was also a bard, who, under color of exercising his art, performed as great things as the most excellent law-givers ; for his songs
were

were so many persuasives to obedience and unanimity. As by means of melody and number they had great grace and power, they softened insensibly the manners of the audience, drew them off from the animosities which then prevailed, and united them in zeal for excellence and virtue ! So that in some measure he prepared the way for Lycurgus towards the instruction of the Spartans.

“ From Crete, Lycurgus passed to Asia-minor ; where, apparently, he met with Homer's poems, which were preserved by the posterity of Cleophylus. Observing that many moral sentences, and much political knowledge, were intermixed with that poet's stories, which had an irresistible charm, he collected them into one body. He transcribed them with pleasure, in order to take them home with him ; for this glorious poetry was not yet fully known in Greece ; only some particular pieces were in a few hands, as they happened to be dispersed. Lycurgus was the first who made them collectively known.”

So far, Plutarch. Now, when the high panegyric is observed, which is here bestowed on the poetry of Thales ; when it is recollected that Thales was the personal friend of Lycurgus, and that Lycurgus was so anxious an enthusiast of poetry as to have collected and edited poems ; it seems to be impossible that the excellent poems of Thales should have perished. Shall we argue, consequently, that the poems collected and edited by Lycurgus are those of Thales ; that Homer is but the assumed name of the author, who, like many other epic poets, thought that he might secure a greater illusion to his readers, by representing himself as nearly cotemporary with the incidents described ; and that Homer is the eyeless antiquated mask worn by Thales, as Ossian by Macpherson ? Had Mr. Wood duly attended to this passage of Plutarch, his essay might have been more original ; and his vigilant familiarity with the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* might have been rendered conducive to the collection of some unobserved notes of time and place, which lie scattered in the course of those compositions. In the poet who places heaven on Mount Ida, he might have suspected a latent Cretan ; and an adopted son of Sparta, in him who celebrates those heroes from whom its sovereigns claimed their descent. The kings of Sparta, according to Pausanias, (lib. iii.) derived their pedigree from the son of Agamemnon, and their inheritance from the daughters of Tyndarus.

In our xviiith volume, p. 59., we noticed the first appearance of this work of Mr. Wood, who is also rendered illustrious by his publication of the *Ruins of Palmyra and Balbec*, superb folios, dated in 1753 and 1757.

In 1772 Mr. Bowyer published an enlarged edition of his own "Conjectures on the New Testament." However meritorious they were at that time, modern inquiry has far outstripped in boldness and depth the cautious researches of the Marklands and other secret coadjutors of Mr. Bowyer.—In the same year, "The Spiritual Quixote" is announced. The works of the Rev. Richard Graves, of which this picture from nature forms but a small part, well deserve to be collectively reprinted. The antidotes of enthusiasm, the remedies of fanaticism, the preventatives of superstition, the emollients of zealotry, the alteratives of credulity, the solvents of bigotry, and the lenitives of intolerance, should now be sought every where among the hoards of literature, and forced into fresh circulation. That industry is incessant, formidable, energetic, organized, and efficacious, with which fraud and folly assail the crumbling bulwarks of good sense.

Of Tyrwhitt's Tracts, an elaborate notice occurs under the year 1773 : an assemblage of them could scarcely fail to interest both the classical and the domestic antiquary.

Under the year 1777, is given a condensed and carefully dated biography of Sir William Jones : but the great (though, we hope, unintentional) error of Lord Teignmouth in attributing orthodox opinions to Sir W. Jones, in defiance of the contradictory evidence of his writings, is not duly arraigned. A preface furnished by Sir William Jones, to a romantic work of Madame de Vacluse, is copied in a note.

The death and will of Mr. Bowyer form conspicuous incidents in this year ; and they terminate that text which these volumes have in common with the life of Bowyer published in 1782. The Essays and Illustrations subsequently appended are continued through three volumes more : but they no longer affect to hang, like cobwebs, to the joists or shelves of the apartment, but float like gossamer with incessant and independent suspension.

The memoir of Cæsar de Missy, who for many years helped to wreath that intellectual bond of union between Great Britain and the Continent which results from the courteous interchange of literary and critical intelligence, is one of the agreeable articles in this Appendix.—That of Robert Orme ought to have been much more diffuse and complete :—this great historian is not yet valued as he ought. We transcribe what is here said of him :

‘ Robert Orme, Esq. was a native of Tilly-Cherry, in the East Indies, of which his father was governor ; he was brought to England whilst an infant, and at an early age was sent to Harrow school, where he received his education. In 1744 or 1745, he went out as
a writer

a writer to Calcutta; in 1755 he was appointed one of the members of the council at Madras. In 1757 he was appointed commissary-general; which office he held till 1759, when he returned to England. In 1763, he published the first volume of his valuable *History of the Military Transactions of the British Nation in India*. In or about 1770, the Court of Directors appointed him their historiographer, with a salary of 400*l. per annum*, and gave him free access to the records at the India-house, for the two succeeding volumes of his work. His last publication, which came out in 1782, was, "*Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire during the Reign of Aurengzebe*." Mr. Orme came to reside at Ealing in 1792, and died there the 15th of January 1801. There is a monument to his memory on the north wall of the church, thus inscribed:

"Sacred to the memory of Robert Orme;
a man endeared to his friends by the gentleness of his manners, and respected by the publick as the elegant historian of the Military Transactions of the

British Nation in India.

Ob. 15 January 1801, ætat. 73."

Mr. Orme's valuable collection of printed books and MSS. relative to the affairs of India were, pursuant to his request, presented after his decease to the East India Company.

A medallion of him is prefixed to his book.*

Of all our English historians, Gibbon is the greatest. For appropriate learning and research, for judgment in the reconciliation of testimony, for sagacity in the appretiation of character, for force and vastness of thought, for stateliness and condensation of style, he is alike admirable. The fault of his matter is the disproportion of its parts.

To Hume must be conceded the second place. If he be deficient in research, he is equitable and judicious in the application of the evidence attained; his moral taste approaches human character with lenity, and prizes in it the beautiful virtues and the fine endowments; while his unsleeping intellect displays the thinker, exercises the philosopher, and instructs the statesman. His style is tame, but elegant; superior for purity, euphony, precision, and selection of ornament, to that of Addison, whom he deigned to imitate:—it is the transparent garb of ideas shapen with the chisel of a master.

Robertson is the competitor of Orme for the third place. Aware that they wanted the classical learning and strength of mind possessed by Gibbon and Hume, the public opinion still vibrates undecided between them, and contemplates as the more colossal figure that which it is made to approach. In our judgment, Orme is a more instructive historian than Robertson; since practical men can rely on the one, not on the other. In comparing the siege of Pondicherry in Orme's first book, with the siege of Metz in Robertson's eleventh book of Charles V., we may

may say that a military man will better know in future how to invest Pondicherry from Orme's account, but that nobody can learn from Robertson how to defend or attack Metz : yet the use of history is to preserve the lessons of experience. In characterizing individuals, Orme draws his inferences from facts and observations ; Robertson from the balance of testimony, and the accident of contemporaneous applause. If we compare the character of Dupleix, in Orme's fifth book,—in which the grounds of every panegyric are recorded, and the most exquisite justice is shewn to an enemy,—with the character of Luther, in Robertson's second book,—which is a mere repetition, and a very tedious one, of ecclesiastical puffs,—we shall see that Luther's low buffoonery, and his insincere use of vulgar credulity, are suppressed by Robertson, not dishonestly, but from ignorance of facts, which he never sought to obtain at the source. Orme is superior to national prejudice ; Robertson is imbued even with sectarian. Orme paints from nature ; Robertson from books :—Orme with the precision of portraiture ; Robertson with the vague distortion of the rhetorician. Orme owes our neglect to the strangeness, and Robertson our favour to the celebrity, of his personages :—Orme is growing on our interest, with the empire of which he sketched the origin ; Robertson is fading on our interest, with the dissolution of those religious and political parties which he had to describe, but dared not to criticize. Orme has the raciness, the foliage, and the verdure, of living history, sprung up among the men and on the spot ; while Robertson displays the sear divested stateliness of the monumental trophy.

*“ Qualis frugifero quercus sublimis in agro
Exuvias veteres populi, sacrataque gestans
Dona ducum, nec jam validis radicibus hærens,
Pondere fixa suo est, nudosque per æra ramos
Effundens, trunco non frondibus efficit umbram.”*

In the fourth volume, are contained laborious micrological antiquarian dissertations on the Polyglotts, on News-papers, and on Pamphlets. These are succeeded by a chequered list of biographical memoirs ; among which that of Edward Wortley Montague may be distinguished, as singularly amusing for the romantic character and varying scenery of the incidents which it includes.

The life of Bishop Horsley is also given. To his great mathematical acquirements, to his deep knowledge of the learned languages, and to his majestic eloquence, due praise is assigned : but he is over-valued as a scripture-critic. In this department of literature, or erudition, his reading was confined and scanty ; and his inferences were mystical and injudicious. He had

neither the intellect nor the frankness of Warburton. That prelate judged better than he argued; Horsley argued better than he judged:—both gloried in the arrogance of episcopacy.

Vol. v. contains curious dissertations on the *Thesaurus of Steevens*, and on the history of *Lexicography*. This latter topic might include dictionaries of science, as well as dictionaries of words only.—To the disquisitions, which for patient copiousness of detail a Hearn might covet to have written, succeed several carefully-dated biographics, chiefly of antiquaries. Plutarch's art of painting individual likenesses by a characteristic anecdote is too much neglected in these accounts. Every body is born, and married, and buried, in exact conformity with the parish-register; while that which not the parish-clerk, but the conversation of the neighbourhood, might have supplied, is too commonly left to the sagacity of *grubblers* yet unborn.

Some account, but one which is very deprectiating, is given of the late Conyers Middleton. This admirable writer was born at Richmond in 1683, and became fellow of Trinity-college at Cambridge in 1706. Being fond of music, he took lessons on the violin, which offended the ears of Bentley, who called him "fiddling Conyers;" and hence, it was thought, arose those personal altercations, which eventually displayed Middleton's superiority, moral, intellectual, and literary, over the great Bentley.

Middleton was created doctor of divinity by royal mandate in 1717. At his suggestion, George I. had purchased and presented to the University of Cambridge the library of Dr. Moore; and the office of principal librarian was immediately conferred on Middleton. After the decease of his first wife in 1724, he visited Italy, whence he returned about the close of the following year. In this journey, and perhaps habitually, he spent more money than he could afford; and in 1731 he accepted a mineralogical lectureship, for which he was ill qualified, but of which the salary was an object. This he resigned on remarrying in 1734. He took private pupils, among whom were remarked a son of Lord Montfort, and a nephew of Lord Radnor. He died in 1750, of a liver-disease; and his decease happening about the same period with that of Gordon, the translator of Tacitus, Lord Bolingbroke is reported to have said, "There is the best writer in England gone, and the worst." Middleton was in fact the best prose-writer in England; and of all those unambitious composers, who have employed the middle style, who have been contented with an idiomatic plainness, and have shunned a swelling diction, he probably remains the best. Purer, more elegant, more precise, and more euphonious than Addison, he is only less various, and as frequently diffuse. An attic fondness for expletives,

pletives, and a negligence which incurs repetitions, may be observed in Middleton's prose: but he never mistakes, like Addison, a sophism for an argument, or a truism for a discovery; and he is always more aware what he says than how he says it. Less excellent as a dialectician than as a critic, his intellect approaches that of Hume, rather for clearness and strength than for invention and subtilty. Those simpler graces of composition, which are acquired by a study of the antique, have been imitated by both; by Hume purposely, and by Middleton unconsciously. His diction, transparent as filtered water, displays in polished distinctness the minutest ground-work of his ideas, which he has never a wish to disguise. Calm in conscious greatness, he could assert sincerity without imprudence, and dignity without ostentation. His *Free Enquiry into the Miraculous Powers*, and his *Letter from Rome*, are the most efficient controversial pamphlets, which Protestant Europe has to oppose against the doctrine of the Papal church. His *Life of Cicero*, though it suffers, as a work of art, from that indolence which relied too exclusively on Bellenden for authorities, and which accepted translations of the cited documents at the hands of any ready student, is the best classical biography in our language; and it disputes, in European literature, the palm with the Julian of LaBletterie. Every fragment of Middleton is valuable for cogency of argument, for tranquillity of temper, for soundness of citation, and for fluency of sense; and it is much to be lamented that the well-meaning piety of Dr. Heberden has condemned to the flames a posthumous manuscript of Middleton, "On the Inefficacy of Prayer." His works are not merely the triumph of our clerical literature, but are among the most valuable of our national classics, and will long survive both the paradoxes of Warburton and the diatribes of Horsley.

The sixth volume opens with a laboured account of the *Gentleman's Society at Spalding*; which, to borrow a distinction made by a recent synonymist, appears to us more praiseworthy than laudable. It seems to possess those unshining utilities, those well-intentioned industries, those meritorious purposes, those quotidian virtues, which it is a duty but a difficulty to panegyryze impressively; and which habits of association alone can inculcate the patience to admire.

A Peterborough Society, and next the Society of Antiquaries in London, are individually depicted with a Dutch love of particulars. Not Gerard Dow, when he was painting by the help of a lens the five hairs on the mole-spot of his grandmother's left cheek, could have taken more pleasure in truth of nature, minuteness of observation, fidelity of detail, or individuality

validity of character, than the compiler of these lives. They are followed by the Wartons, Drs. Mead and Pegge, Mr. Gough, Dr. Ducarel, Bp. Hurd, &c. To us, however, the editor's own memoirs were at present most attractive, and of them we will present a sketch from the documents here provided :

‘ John Nichols, son of Edward and Anne Nichols, was born at Islington, Feb. 2. 1744-5 ; and received his education in that village, at the academy of Mr. John Shield.

‘ His original designation was to the Royal Navy ; which was rendered abortive by a relation's death.

‘ In 1757, before he was quite 13, he was placed under the care of Mr. Bowyer ; who in a short time received him into his confidence, and intrusted to him the management of his printing-office.

‘ In 1765, he was sent to Cambridge, to treat with the University for a lease of their exclusive privilege of printing. But that learned body having determined to keep the property in their own hands, he in the following year (having previously become a Freeman of London, and a Liveryman of the Company of Stationers) entered into partnership with his master ; with whom in 1767 he removed from White Friars into Red Lion Passage, Fleet Street. This union continued till the death of Mr. Bowyer in 1777.

‘ In August 1778, he became associated with his friend Mr. David Henry in the management of the Gentleman's Magazine ; and since that time not a single month has elapsed, in which he has not written several articles in that Miscellany ; some of them with his name, or his initials ; and others (as is essential to a periodical work) anonymously. But he can truly say, that he never wrote a single line, either in the Magazine or elsewhere, that he would not at the time have avowed had it been necessary, or that he now wishes to recall.

‘ In 1781 he was elected an honorary member of the Society of Antiquaries at Edinburgh ; and in 1785 received the same distinction from the Society of Antiquaries at Perth.

‘ In December 1784, he was elected into the Common Council, for the Ward of Farringdon Without ; whence, in 1786, on a violent collision of parties, he was ousted. In the summer of 1787 he was unanimously re-elected ; and received from Mr. Alderman Wilkes the unsolicited appointment of one of the Deputies of the Ward.

‘ At the end of 1797, on the death of Mr. Wilkes, he withdrew from his seat in the Common Council ; but in the following year, on the pressing solicitation of some of his friends, again accepted of it.

‘ In 1804, he attained the summit of his ambition — in being elected Master of the Stationers' Company.

‘ On the 8th of January 1807, by an accidental fall, he fractured one of his thighs ; and, on the 8th of February 1808, experienced a far greater calamity, in the destruction of his printing-office and warehouse, with the whole of their valuable contents.

‘ Under these accumulated misfortunes, sufficient to have overwhelmed a much stronger mind, he was supported by the consolatory balm of friendship, and the offers of unlimited pecuniary assistance — till, cheered by unequivocal marks of public and private approbation

(not

(not to mention motives of a higher and far superior nature) he had the resolution to apply with redoubled diligence to literary and typographical labours.

‘ In December 1811, having completed the “ History of Leicestershire,” and made a considerable progress in the volumes in which this article appears, he had a final adieu to civic honours;—intending also to withdraw from a business in which he has been for 54 years assiduously engaged; and hoping (*Deo volente*) to pass the evening of life in the calm enjoyment of domestic tranquillity.

‘ He was married, in 1766, to Anne daughter of Mr. William Cradock, of Leicester, and again, in 1778, to Martha daughter of Mr. William Green, of Hinckley. By the first wife, (who died in 1776) he has two daughters living, 1812; by the second, (who died in 1788) one son and four daughters.

‘ He never affected to possess any superior share of erudition, or to be profoundly versed in the learned languages; content, if in plain and intelligible terms, either in conversation or in writing, he could contribute his quota of information or entertainment.’

An enumeration follows of fifty-seven distinct publications of this productive and (we can conscientiously add) this most fair and widely useful writer; which, however, do not include his ample progressive contributions to the *Gentleman's Magazine*. No one of them appears to us more distinctly to deserve to be completed and reprinted, than the steps repeatedly taken towards an entire annotated edition of the works of Sir Richard Steele. He was a titled author, a gentleman-writer, a moral and an urbane public instructor; and he has contributed, more perhaps than Addison himself, to that tone of cultivated purity, of disciplined information, of select acquirement, and of communicable knowledge, which confers on the women of England a high conversational rank, without an alarming omniscience. He has known, from intuitive decorum, where to limit the proper study of womankind. Religion and science have both attempted their additions to Steele's range of topics, but hitherto without a marked and unequivocal success. Most female religionists have a little of austerity, of proselytism, and of bigotry, which interferes with facile matrimony and with domestic quiet: while most female philosophers have a little of curiosity, of partiality, and of rashness, which interferes with marital deference and with contented seclusion. Steele saw in embryo these tendencies, and taught a desirable temperance of inquiry, remote alike from the privations of ignorance and the intoxications of vanity. His pupils are not inured to place piety in zeal, or accomplishment in prating.

After this faint attempt to represent the varied contents of these volumes, we must now close them; and if we do it with some

some recollection of fatigue, it is mixed with many of gratitude. They furnish an assorted stock of literary information, separated into drawers, carefully labelled, readily accessible, and fit for retail. The historians of letters, and all those book-worms of celebrity who pass their time in feeding on the remains of excellence and the carrion of genius, have here an entire catacomb of mummies for their prey. Lexicographers of lives will dig here for dates and details, for the titles of forgotten volumes, or the deaths of immortal authors; and all the living literary industry, which half despairs of the gratitude of posterity and the memory of nations, will view with welcome hope and grateful complacence the labour of so assiduous an antiquary, directed to the comprehensive and indiscriminate preservation of all that is known concerning the fates or fortunes of the studious. Not wholly to die is likely to be the gift of the printing-press to every one of its employers. The unread authors are chronicled for being scarce; the read for being popular. Obscurity is protected from oblivion, in order to display research; mediocrity, by the instinctive attachment of sympathy; and genius, by that overawing sentiment of veneration for departed excellence, which formerly elevated temples to Homer among the Greeks, and to Paul among the Christians.

As an effort of literary art, this work would have been a more proportionate, complete, lasting, and finished production, if it had more nearly and closely preserved the form of the original edition of 1782. Materials have since that period accumulated, which it was a step towards perfection to introduce; but the irrelevant and unconnected passages, which throw no light on the annals of the Bowyer-press, ought rather to have been transplanted into some other analogous compilation, than foisted into a mosaic in whose pattern they are superfluous *tesserae*. Of *nothing too much* is a proverb attributed to some sage, who probably was never an author.

A seventh volume liberally supplies a very copious index to all the six.

ART. VII. *Observations on the Trial by Jury*, particularly on the Unanimity required in the Verdict. By John Longley, Esq., late Recorder of Rochester, and at present One of the Justices of the Thames Police. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

THE respectable name affixed to this pamphlet intitles it to be distinguished from the mass of crude and ill-digested treatises, which are from time to time shot from the heated brains of

of self-created law-givers, against every institution or system that has been established. The trial by jury has escaped with fewer assaults than almost any other mode of judicature that has been practised among men; and, considering how strongly it is protected by the favourable prejudices of a country of which it is the boasted peculiarity, it must be allowed as a proof of no ordinary courage in an author that he ventures to discuss its failings. That failings should exist in the system cannot be so much matter of surprize to any one who reflects on the origin and progress of this extraordinary institution, as if it were found free from any defects of theory or practice. Indeed, it is impossible to dwell a moment on this subject without being struck with the reflection that an institution, the offspring of an age and people whose name and character are used to designate barbarity, has been found to possess so much practical superiority over any mode of judicature that was discovered by the most refined and enlightened societies of antiquity; though they carried to the highest point the science of speculative legislation, and united a knowledge of all the arts of civil life with the most lively, zealous, and vigilant attachment to the preservation of civil liberty. It is not less extraordinary that so admirable and well concerted a structure was not the discovery of deliberate wisdom, either in an individual legislator, or a collective assembly employed in framing or organizing a body of laws for the government of a regular society,—like the laws of Solon and Lycurgus, or those of the twelve tables, or like the codes of Justinian, Frederic, and Napoleon,—but was one among a number of the rude customs of half-civilized tribes, the majority of whose rites and usages were marked by absurdity, blindness, and ignorance.

These considerations are sufficient to lead us to expect, *a priori*, the existence of many blemishes and defects, combined with the best and wisest plans, in a system of judicature that is derived from such an origin; and the real existence of such blemishes is pointed out with freedom and ability in the pages before us, by a writer who evidently delivers the sentiments of a full mind, strongly impressed with his subject, and able to give a nervous utterance to clear and distinct conceptions.

The correct history of the trial by jury is the *opprobrium historicorum*, if such a phrase may be allowed; for even well-founded conjecture is wanting to gratify our curiosity on this most interesting branch of inquiry. Yet enough is known to ascertain that the unanimity, required in the trial by jury at the present day, was not one of its original ingredients; and this is perhaps an argument in its favour, as going a great way

to shew that the alteration was the gradual result of experience, and was established from a tried sense of its advantage. However this may be, many vestiges are on record, of a different mode of proceeding; though it does not certainly appear what the rule was in case of a difference of opinion among the jury, nor whether any settled and invariable practice was followed. The contrary rather seems to have been the fact; for we sometimes find that the verdict of the minority as well as of the majority was recorded; and on other occasions the expedient was adopted of adding to the jury a number of fresh jurymen equal to the minority, and then taking the sense of a majority of the whole. At whatever period, however, or from whatever views of the subject, the practice of requiring the jury to be unanimous was first introduced, it is liable to some obvious objections; which are so well stated by the author of this pamphlet, that the reader, who wishes to make up his mind on this controverted point, will find his trouble well rewarded in the perusal of the work, which will make him master of at least one side of the question. The gradual adoption of the law of unanimity is also traced through a series of curious judgments and decisions; and, that the writer may do justice to the question of which he treats, he has laid before his readers an authority in support of the practice in the opinion of the late Lord Ashburton. That eminent lawyer—whose store of forensic experience, added to the solidity of his judgment, gives a formidable weight to the side which he espoused in a question which his acute mind must often have revolved,—was firmly persuaded, by his own observation, of the good effect resulting from the unanimity required in a jury. This opinion Mr. Longley examines and combats with great strength and shrewdness: but whether with such success as to produce conviction, we cannot undertake to determine.

However, as on various occasions in which we admire a system in theory, we are compelled to lament the fact that many of its beauties vanish or are changed into blemishes in practice; so it sometimes happens, for our consolation, that many evils and deformities, which are made to look very glaring and full of mischief in speculation, are in practice productive of so little injury, that it becomes a matter of doubt whether they merit censure or approbation. Thus it is with the object of which we are speaking. The inconveniences and absurdities of requiring unanimity in juries may be depicted in such strong colours, and exposed by such unanswerable reasons, that we are ready to condemn the system as irrational, mischievous, and the sure source of perjury and injustice; and to lament that we can cherish scarcely any hope of seeing a better system

substituted in its place : but when we recollect how little real complaint is ever heard to arise from a cause which, if really pregnant with so much ill, must from its daily operation be the ground not of speculative censure but of loud and universal clamour, we feel our dissatisfaction more sensibly diminished by that recollection, than it would be by abundance of theoretical discussion.

If the system were to be new-modelled, great consideration would be due to the objections which might be urged against the present plan : but it is not easy to predict what might be the success of a different regulation. Certainly, the ordinary sense of mankind is in favour of the objection. Of this we have an example before our eyes ; which, while it proves that the general impression is against our present arrangement, will afford an important lesson on this subject, by observation of the effect resulting from a plan which is intended to heal the supposed defect. We allude to the trial by jury as established under the French code, in criminal cases. In order to obviate the objections to a perfect agreement in the jury, that trial is thus ordered ; viz. the verdict is according to the opinion of the majority ; an equality acquits : “ *si néanmoins l'accusé n'est déclaré coupable du fait principal qu'à une simple majorité, les juges délibéreront entre eux sur le même point ; et si l'avis de la minorité des jurés est adopté par la majorité des juges, de telle sort qu'en réunissant le nombre des voix ce nombre excède celui de la majorité des jurés et de la minorité des juges, l'avis favorable à l'accusé prévaut.*”

Hitherto, little opportunity has occurred for comparing the merits of this French plan with those of our own ; for as yet too little scope has been given to the free exercise of the system itself, to allow us to judge of the comparative excellence of any of its parts : but if the time should ever arrive when the present military despotism shall give way to a government that will permit the unconstrained practice of the forms of the constitution, the merits of each system may be fairly weighed in the balance of experience and observation, provided that national prejudices can be kept out of the scale. Since France, moreover, has afforded the example of an emancipation from those prejudices, by borrowing an important institution from her rival, we ought to hope that our posterity will not be ashamed to adopt any real improvement which their neighbours may have the good fortune to discover in its design.

Without entering into a lengthened discussion on this question, we cannot help observing that all the arguments, which condemn the principle of unanimity in juries, appear to

us to neglect one view of the case which ought not to be overlooked. To expect any number of men to agree exactly in the impression made on their minds by the facts laid before them is obviously irrational: but those who assume that every jurymen must necessarily retain his first impression, and is therefore guilty of perjury in acceding to a verdict contrary to it, seem to forget that the office and use of a collective tribunal, as juries are, is to deliberate and consult as well as to vote. The first conclusion from the evidence may in some, perhaps in the majority, be wrong: but, so far from being under a necessity of adhering to that conclusion, every dispassionate and sensible man is desirous of correcting and assisting his judgment by comparing it with that of others; and it is not till after he has submitted his judgment to such an examination, that any cautious man can satisfactorily form a conviction by which he is prepared to abide. Now this end would not be so well answered by allowing the verdict of the majority to prevail; since, though it may be said that, in case of an erroneous impression taken up by the majority, which is to be corrected by consultation, the same arguments which are supposed to bring over the whole would also bring over the greater number, and that still therefore unanimity is not proved to be requisite; yet it may reasonably be feared that, if a majority dictated the verdict, the inevitable consequence would be that no discussion would take place, but the jury would at once proceed to voting, as the most expeditious method of discharging a burdensome office.

The present tract is not confined to the single point of unanimity, but embraces other objections, and particularly as to the number and qualifications of jurymen; both of which are enforced with great plausibility. The author finds fault with the law which requires a jury to consist of *twelve*, a number which he conceives to be unnecessarily multiplied, for the purpose of correct investigation: He is led to this conclusion by the daily experience of the number usually adopted in arbitrations, where the choice of the parties in their own cause seldom fixes on more than three; and no complaints are made of the insufficiency of that number. It is justly observed that, if a smaller number than twelve be adequate to fulfil all the purposes of a jury, to exact the attendance of more than the requisite number is an unnecessary and impolitic invasion of the time of individuals, and of that class of individuals to whom time is property. Twelve, however, are less easily biassed than three. — It is in vain to inquire for the reason which gave to the precise number of *twelve* that mysterious preference which was attributed to it by most of the northern tribes of Europe,

among whom the first lineaments of the jury are to be traced. That reason was probably very foolish, and not worth our inquiries, even if we had any clue to satisfy them. It certainly is intitled to serious consideration whether the public business might not be carried on with a smaller encroachment on private callings. In the new French ordinance, the number of *twelve* is preserved; whether from a deliberate persuasion of its propriety, or from a regard to antiquity, we cannot say: but, considering the men who were employed in the formation of that code, the former motive, either well or ill grounded, was more probably consulted.

Another objection is the confining the duty of jurymen in county-juries to freeholders, copyholders, and leaseholders, instead of distributing it among them in common with the respectable class of householders. This is however a matter of minor importance, because it does not impeach the fitness of the jury as at present constituted to perform its functions to the public, but only proposes an arrangement which would cause a more equal distribution of an onerous office.

On the whole, we sincerely recommend this short treatise to all those to whom the perfection of the jurisprudence of their country is an object of interest or concern: persuaded as we are that every discussion, which fixes the attention of the community on subjects of this nature, is beneficial; and that the most certain method of insuring the stability of patriotic institutions is to labour incessantly to improve them, to admit no standard of perfection but real utility, and neither to court innovation nor to fear it.

ART. VIII. *Reasons for a Modification of the Act of Anne respecting the Delivery of Books and Copy-right.* 8vo. Pamphlet. Nichols, Son, and Bentley. 1813.

AN application is now depending in Parliament, the object of which is explained by the above title; and the circumstances which have occasioned that application are briefly these. The act of Anne, (8 Ann. c.19.) which secures the copy-right of authors for 14 years, or, if they survive that term, for 14 years longer, also imposes a penalty of one penny a sheet on pirated copies of books: but it directs, as a condition to the recovery of the penalty, that the publications shall be entered in the register of Stationers' Hall. It is then added that, of all books printed and published as aforesaid, nine copies shall be sent to Stationers' Hall, for the use of the King's Library, Sion College, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, the four Scotch Univer-

Universities, and the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh. A subsequent statute (41 G. 3. c.107.) requires two other copies for Trinity College and the King's Inns at Dublin; — in all, eleven copies.

This act was interpreted by authors and booksellers to require the delivery of copies only of those publications which were entered at Stationers' Hall; and, as an idea was soon taken up that an action at law might be maintained for an invasion of copy-right independently of that statute, which would afford sufficient protection to the proprietors without recurring to the penalties of the act, they did not deem it necessary to register every work in the manner prescribed. At length, in 1798, it was decided, in the case of Beckford against Hood, by the Court of King's Bench, that an author had a right to an action of damages for pirating his work, though it had not been entered according to the directions of the act of Anne. This judgment occasioned the almost entire cessation of the practice of registering; and, as the delivery of copies was supposed to depend on the registry, such delivery ceased also. In this opinion, the public bodies intitled to copies under the statute acquiesced, until about two years ago; when the University of Cambridge asserted a claim to a copy of every work published in which an exclusive copy-right could be maintained, although it had not been registered. Their claim was resisted; and the validity of it was tried in an action brought by the University for the non-delivery of Mr. Fox's historical work. A special case was argued on it before the Court of King's Bench; when it was determined that the act of Anne is to be construed by itself, and that it requires a delivery of copies of all books, whether registered or not.

We are not prepared to question, in the remotest degree, the soundness of this determination, which we firmly believe to be a true exposition of the law as it stands: but this belief is compatible with the persuasion which we entertain, on the perusal of these *Reasons*, &c. that it deserves the most attentive deliberation of the legislature whether, in the present state of literary publications, the important interests of literature do not call for a revisal and modification of that law.

The origin of the delivery of copies was an act of Charles the Second in 1662, called the Licensing Act; which was professedly intended for the odious purpose of restraining the liberty of the press. To promote the ends of that act, by way of giving to government full notice of every new work, it required every printer to send three copies of each book newly printed, or reprinted with additions, to the Stationers' Company, in order to be sent to the King's Library, and the Vice-

chancellors of the two Universities of Oxford and Cambridge for the use of their public libraries. From this obnoxious root sprang all the subsequent enactments respecting the delivery of copies. The act was indeed temporary, and was suffered to die away. Its spirit was revived in the arbitrary reign of James the Second, but was again allowed to expire under that of William the Third in 1694. From that period, it lay dormant till the statute of Anne again recalled it into action.— This history is calculated to give an inauspicious character to a law so descended, but would not be intitled to much regard if the law itself were not exposed to radical objections.

An attempt has been made to maintain the claim on equitable grounds, as if it were a just commutation given to the Universities, at the time of granting exclusive copy-rights, for the loss of the privilege which they had enjoyed of printing all books, which was destroyed by the above-mentioned act: but the whole foundation of this plea is shewn to be visionary and fallacious, by the author of the tract before us; and, having disposed of the argument in support of the reasonableness and justice of the law, he proceeds to the positive grounds for deeming it unreasonable and unjust. These are principally founded on the hardship of taking out of the pockets of authors, for on them the loss must ultimately fall, a share of profits which in very many instances amounts to a most serious taxation. As an example which may serve at least to justify the complaints of those who are concerned, and to alarm those who wish well to the cause of literature, we subjoin one list out of several which the author has collected to exemplify his position:

‘ Let us instance the following works. The required copies of these, on the best paper, would have amounted to the sum of 5698l. 1s.

	£.	s.	d.
11 of Daniel's Oriental Scenery, 200 guineas,	2310	0	0
11 of Lord Valentia's Travels, (N. B. only 50 of the best paper printed,) - - -	577	10	0
11 of Salt's Views, 26 guineas, - - -	300	6	0
11 of Bloomfield's Norfolk, 22 guineas, - - -	254	2	0
11 of British Gallery of Engravings, - - -	1065	13	6
11 of Costumes of the World, - - -	532	2	6
11 of Dryden's Works, - - -	138	12	0
11 of Sir R. Hoare's Ancient Wiltshire, - - -	207	18	0
11 of Giraldus, 2 vols. - - -	127	1	0
11 of Perry's Conchology, - - -	184	16	0
	<hr/> £5698 1 0' <hr/>		

We select only one other instance, from among many, to shew the direct and heavy discouragement to literature which must ensue if the law as it now exists be enforced :

‘ A new edition of Dugdale’s *Monasticon* is preparing, with additions. The subscription-price of this on the best paper is 130 guineas for each set. This will be a very expensive work to the reverend gentleman who has undertaken it, from the number of plates which it will contain. If he should be compelled to give 11 copies of this, it will be a loss to him of 1,500l.’

It is alleged, on the other side, that the author has only to print eleven more copies than he otherwise would, and the tax will amount merely to the value of the paper and the printing of those copies, which will hardly be felt : but to this the author of the *Reasons* answers ; First, no greater number of any book is printed than, according to the best foresight, will be actually sold ; and the great expence of paper and print makes it necessary to form the most exact calculation on this subject : but, by antient custom, which cannot now be altered, the printers charge by 250 copies ; that is, if they print 260, or any number above 250 and under 500, they charge the same as for 500 ; if they print 505, they charge the same as for 750 ; and so on. Now paper and print make the largest part of the expence of a publication. If, then, an author thinks that he cannot venture to print above 250 or 500, which is the case with the vast majority of publications, it is not of small importance to him to print eleven copies more. If he thinks that he can sell 250 copies, and has to print eleven more for the compulsory delivery, these eleven copies, as far as the printing is concerned, actually double his cost. Secondly, if to avoid this double expence, he prints only his 250 or 500, then the eleven copies are a positive deduction from his profits of the whole price of those eleven copies ; and if the author would have sold the whole number which he prints, it is clear that to give eleven copies of that number will be actually depriving himself of the whole sum that they would have produced him. — We forbear to enter farther into detail, from a persuasion that the succinct view of the tract before us which we have taken will be sufficient to answer the end which we propose by noticing it thus early ; viz. to draw to the subject the serious attention of those who are shortly to decide whether the literature of the country shall be for ever loaded with so heavy a tax ; or whether a law that has for its professed object the promotion of knowledge should not be so modified as not to be inconsistent with that end, by occasioning a pressure on the exertions of literature in one direction that more than counterbalances the advantage which it procures in another.

On the question of public utility, we may fairly advert to the judgment and practice of any country in which literature has flourished. France is allowed to stand next to England in this particular. Under the former government, every French publisher was required to give two copies to the King's Library; one to that of the Louvre; one to the Chancellor; and one to the Keeper of the Seals:—but these copies have been felt to be too many, and the law now only requires *two* to be deposited in the National Library.

We would merely remark farther, that the actually flourishing condition of literature in our own country, notwithstanding the existence of this obnoxious ordinance, affords no plea for its continuance; since it is apparent from what has been stated, that till now it has never or very feebly been called into operation.

In stating the case of authors and booksellers, the present writer proposes a relief which seems to be equitable and judicious; viz. that the favoured bodies should be intitled to such copies as they chuse, *at half the ordinary price*. As it can answer no useful purpose to any of the eleven libraries to have copies of all publications, the best line, perhaps, that could be drawn, would be that they should order what they want to preserve, and pay this half-price for such as they order; by which means they would have only useful and necessary works.

ART. IX. *A Treatise on the Diseases and Organic Lesions of the Heart and great Vessels.* By J. N. Corvisart, M.D., First Physician to their Imperial and Royal Majesties, &c. &c. Translated from the French, by C. H. Hebb, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. pp. 404. 10s. 6d. Boards. Underwood and Blacks. 1813.

AFTER having perused this work, one of the first impressions that we derive from it is an idea of the much greater frequency of diseases of the heart than persons in general have suspected. While most practitioners conceive such affections to be of rare occurrence, Dr. Corvisart, who derives his opinions on the subject from actual dissection, asserts that they are even more common than those of most of the other viscera. It seems indeed extremely probable that many trains of symptoms, which we refer to inflammation of the lunge, to hydro-thorax, or to other affections of the chest, are either primary diseases of the heart or those in which the organ largely participates.

The volume is divided into five parts, in which the difference of structure is made the principal object of the arrangement.

‘ The first treats of the Diseases of the Membranous Coverings of the Heart.

‘ The second of the Diseases of its Muscular Substance.

‘ The third of the Diseases of its Fibrous or Tendinous Tissue.

‘ The fourth of those Diseases which, at one and the same time, affect many Tissues of this Organ, and of those unnatural States which may be considered as so many Organic Lesions of the Heart.

‘ In the fifth, I briefly treat of Aneurisms of the Aorta, and for a moment direct the reader's attention to the red colour which is often observed on the internal membrane of this artery.’

In the first part are included the diseases of the pericardium, and the collections of serous fluid in its cavity. The inflammation of the pericardium is described as existing in three states; the acute, the sub-acute, (which appears to differ from the former only in degree,) and the chronic. The acute is probably always connected with inflammation of the pleura, or other neighbouring membranes; so as to render it doubtful how far it can, in any instance, be regarded as the primary or even the principal disease. The same observation applies to the chronic with still greater force; and in the cases which are given of this variety of the malady, we think that it would have been impossible before death to have predicted its nature. In the sub-acute variety, the diagnostics are perhaps more direct, although here still very obscure. It commences with an acute and burning pain about the region of the heart.

‘ The breathing soon becomes high and difficult, the pulse frequent and hard, but rarely irregular; the two cheek bones, particularly the left, assume a deep red colour; such are the symptoms of its attack: but about the third or fourth day, the peculiar change of the features, the hollow countenance, in which is seen a deep dejection, accompanied however with a kind of irritability; the constant and inexpressible anxiety; the continual agitation; the respiration high, laborious, and interrupted; slight palpitations; incomplete faintings, frequent, or not, according to the rapid or slow progress of the disease; finally, the pulse small, quick, hard, contracted, concentrated, and often irregular; leave but little doubt as to the true seat of the inflammation.’

Even this, which may be considered as the least complicated case of pericarditis, strongly resembles pleurisy, and is generally connected with it. With respect to this disease in general, Dr. Corvisart remarks that the acute and the chronic are very dangerous, and the sub-acute less formidable. He gives the following directions for its treatment:

‘ As to the treatment, these inflammations require the means usually employed in the different phlegmasiæ, whether acute or chronic, of the chest, always remembering that the anti-phlogistic treatment, and particularly local and general bleeding, should be employed with more freedom and promptitude, in the first stage, than

in the second, and in this than in the third; and that when these means have been employed, we must rely chiefly on revulsive remedies. The best, according to my experience, and which I am not the first to recommend in pericarditis, as well as in pleuritis, &c. are large blisters applied to the painful parts, even where the pain itself may be confined within a narrow compass. I cannot too much recommend this method, after the advantage I have almost constantly seen result from it.

A consequence of the inflammation of the pericardium is its adhesion to the substance of the heart; a state which is sometimes attended with little inconvenience, and has not even been suspected before death. At other times, however, it is productive of very distressing symptoms, which much resemble those of inflammation of the organ. Its only distinguishing mark is the absence of strong palpitations.—The description of the dropsy of the pericardium, or, as the author calls it, hydro-pericardium, concludes the first part. It is supposed that the existence of this complaint may be recognized by the peculiar sensation which the beating of the heart conveys to the hand, when applied to the chest, and also by the sound produced by striking the thorax in different parts; and probably both these circumstances may afford us assistance in forming our opinion, but, after all, the diagnosis will often be found very difficult. The author remarks that the quantity of fluid which has been found in the pericardium, in a natural state, is never more than six or seven ounces, and generally a much smaller portion.

The principal diseases placed in the second class, those of the muscular substance of the heart, are dilations of this organ, which Dr. C. styles aneurysms. He arranges aneurysms of the heart under two classes, active and passive; the first connected with increased thickness of its parietes, and the latter with diminished thickness. The former of these states is supposed to be dependent on increased action of the part, by which the muscular substance of the heart is augmented in bulk, just as the exercise of a muscle in any other part of the body tends to enlarge its substance. The distension of the heart, with diminution of its substance, is compared to the relaxed state of the bladder when its fibres have been stretched and weakened by over-distension. We may conclude that a real foundation exists for this distinction, and that Dr. C.'s pathological views on the subject are correct; yet it appears to be often difficult to ascertain how the cause should have operated to produce sometimes the active and at other times the passive state, or to distinguish between them when the disease is really formed. The active aneurysm is said to be more generally confined to
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one particular part of the heart, and especially to the left ventricle; although in some rare cases the affection is more diffused. Occasionally, the left ventricle is subject to active aneurysm, at the same time that the right ventricle is in the opposite state. This may be easily supposed to exist, when an obstruction prevails at the commencement of the aorta, which renders the transmission of blood through the heart more laborious; and which, while it gives additional force to the left ventricle, is too powerful for the weaker side of this organ, and therefore reduces the thinner parietes of the right ventricle to a state of over-distension.

The author states in detail many examples of the two kinds of aneurysms, and relates the symptoms which existed before death with the appearances that were discovered on dissection. In enumerating these symptoms, he describes them as they affect the different functions separately; those belonging to the brain, the circulation, the respiration, those of the stomach, and of the secretory organs. He also divides the disease into three stages, and specifies the symptoms peculiar to each; which he conceives to be sufficiently characteristic to enable us, in many instances, to ascertain the progress made by the disorder. All this part of the work contains much important information, and exhibits the great accuracy and assiduity of the author. If, in some respects, it should be thought that he has carried his system of arrangements to a degree of minuteness which is not warranted by the phenomena, we have it in our power in all cases to form our own opinion on the subject, by comparing his account of the symptoms with that of the dissection. We are frequently enabled to judge of the nature of an aneurysm, whether active or passive, by the consideration of the constitution of the patient, and the immediate cause of the disease, when this last can be ascertained. The first species, as we might suppose, occurs in robust constitutions and in the sanguine temperament, and is brought on by violent exertion; the latter is conceived to depend on debility, and to be produced by those circumstances which retard or weaken the circulation of the blood.

Dr. Corvisart lays down some directions for discriminating the part of the heart that is affected, in those cases in which only one or two of the cavities are diseased: but this, we think, is a degree of refinement which can never be applied to any useful purpose. Here, and in many other instances, he attempts to discover the state of the heart by what he calls percussion; a method first recommended by Avenbrugger, and which is thus described:

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‘It consists in striking the chest with the ends of the fingers united; in which case, if the lungs are sound, full of air, and if no foreign body, either solid or fluid, occupy the interior of the thoracic cavity, the sound produced by the percussion has been compared (an exaggerated comparison) to that proceeding from an empty barrel when struck. Where, on the contrary, a solid or fluid body fills one of the cavities of the thorax, or both, the parietes give, to the extent so occupied, a sound which has been characterized by the term (*mat*) dull, and which is said to resemble that excited by striking the thigh in the same manner, or with the flat of the hand. The sound produced by percussion in some diseases of the heart is but little less than in a natural state, and is then the index of a less decidedly morbid state of the viscera within. The knowledge of the degree of sound which denotes the perfectly healthy state of all the organs of the chest, can only be acquired by practice; and it is that alone also which enables one, in some sort, to judge of the solidity of the body which prevents the chest from sounding at all; but in forming a judgment, every allowance must be made for the natural thickness of the integuments, and for the very frequent anasarcaous state of these parts, which has, in many cases, led to the belief that the chest sounded badly, when it was entirely owing to these circumstances.’

Part II. concludes with some remarks on the induration of the muscular tissue of the heart, — on the conversion of the heart into a cartilaginous substance, and into a fatty substance, — on sphacelus of the extremities, — and on apoplexy as connected with aneurysms of the heart and larger vessels.

In the third Class, — diseases of the tendinous and fibrous parts of the heart, — we have an account of a more varied and miscellaneous tribe of complaints. The author gives a description of the induration of the fibrous parts in general, and particularly of the openings of the ventricles; afterward of contractions of the ventricular orifices; next of induration of the valves; and, lastly, of excrescences from the valves. Here we have an account of a substance which, we believe, has not been before noticed, and which Dr. C. calls *vegetations* of the valves. He conjectures that they are of a syphilitic origin, although, as we conceive, he has not any very decisive grounds for such an opinion. One of the cases is thus described:

‘The greater portion of the mitral valve which is before the orifice of the aorta no longer adhered by the chordæ tendinæ to the columnæ carnæ, to which those cords are attached. To its edge, which was loose, hung several longish excrescences, irregularly formed, much resembling venereal warts, and which appeared like morbid alterations of the detached chordæ tendinæ. One of the columnæ carnæ had two soft portions of its tendons visible; there were no signs of any others being torn.

‘One of the semi-lunar valves of the aorta had, at the middle of the surface corresponding to the axis of that artery, some hardish excrescences, much resembling those on the mitral valves.’

This part terminates with some judicious remarks, 'On the Signs proper to the Contractions of Orifices.' Dr. C. arranges these affections under two general heads: '1st, Those which produce an incomplete but permanent and always uniform diminution of the area of the orifices. 2d, Those which produce this diminution only at intervals.' The former are chiefly composed of indurations, or permanent contractions; the latter, of the excrescences which have just been described. When the right side of the heart is affected, it is supposed that the respiration will be more especially disturbed; and the author points out a 'rustling, difficult to describe,' which, when it can be perceived, is regarded as a sign of the disease of the left ventricular opening.

Class the fourth contains an account of carditis, of ruptures of the heart, and tumours of the heart. Carditis is stated to resemble very strongly pericarditis; and, indeed, it is probable that they are almost always connected together. Like other inflammations, it may terminate in suppuration, gangrene, or ulceration; and though such cases never fell under Dr. Corvisart's own inspection, he quotes examples of them from other writers. This division of the work is more miscellaneous and less interesting than any of the others, and may in fact be regarded as consisting of cases which could not be conveniently placed elsewhere.

Class v., which treats of aneurysm of the aorta, is perhaps the most valuable part of the book. According to the idea which generally prevailed before the time of Prof. Scarpa's publication, the author divides aneurysms into true and false, and conceives that the latter are the more rare of the two; and he gives an account of the formation of this latter species, which differs from the one that is generally adopted. He does not believe that it is occasioned by a breach in the other arterial coats, permitting the cellular coat to protrude, but that a tumour or cyst forms on the outside of the artery, and that by degrees a communication is made between this cyst and the interior of the vessel. The aneurysm is therefore produced by a cause external to the vessel, and not from any disease or enlargement of the parts of the vessel itself.—We do not feel ourselves competent absolutely to decide on this pathological point, but Dr. Corvisart's ideas on the subject are ingenious, and seem to be supported by his observations.

The volume closes with a valuable section intitled 'Corollaries,' which contains many important conclusions on the nature of the diseases that form the subject of the treatise, as deduced from a comparison of the symptoms with the appearances on dissection. Our limits will not, however, permit us to enter

enter into an examination of its contents ; and, with respect to the performance in general, we shall only add that it deserves to be attentively studied by every person who is desirous of obtaining correct ideas on the important class of diseases to which it relates.

ART. X. *Outlines of a new Philosophical Theory*, being an Attempt to prove that Gravitation and Caloric are the sole Causes of every Phenomenon in Nature ; with a practical Application to Vegetation and Agriculture. By John Sellon, Esq., Land Surveyor. 8vo. pp.163. 5s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

TO form a new philosophical theory, which shall explain some of the most important and interesting operations of nature on new principles, is no easy task ; and, if it were attainable, it would require a much more powerful genius, and a much wider range of information, than appear to be possessed by the present author. Yet we should be induced to suppose, from the perusal of his work, that he was a man of reflection, and of a philosophical turn of mind, though he has evidently undertaken a matter which is far beyond his powers. The general object, which Mr. Sellon proposes to himself, may in some degree be inferred from this sentence in his preface :

‘ The chief ground on which the following theory is conceived to differ from all others, is, that there is none which embraces the same subject, none which refers every operation of nature to the agency of the *same* principle ; light, for instance, is generally accounted for on one, heat on another, electricity on another, &c. ; many of the following subjects too have never been explained on any principle whatever, as the cause of vegetable life, elasticity, Galvanic electricity, fermentation, &c.’

The basis of the hypothesis is that two principles exist in nature, *matter* and *caloric* ; matter which is distinguished by possessing gravitation, and caloric by possessing repulsion. ‘ The world then is composed of Matter, the particles of which mutually attract, and are attracted by each other ; and of Caloric, the particles of which mutually repel, and are repelled by each other ; but the particles of matter attract, and are attracted by caloric, and those of caloric attract and are attracted by matter.’ Caloric is supposed to exist in the largest quantity in bodies which have the least density, estimating them by weight : yet by bulk the densest contain the most caloric, because here the greater power of attraction will require a proportional quantity of caloric to balance it. The more the caloric is compressed by the particles of matter, the
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greater will be their force of repulsion ; and this increase of force is supposed to follow the law ' of the square of the compression.' When the caloric is so much compressed that the repellency of its particles exceeds their attraction for matter, it flies off in rays through the surrounding medium.

' These,' says Mr. S., ' I believe, are the most obvious properties of caloric, all arising from the power of repulsion exerted by its particles. We see then that the particles of matter attract, and those of caloric repel each other : and thus though they mutually attract each other, the repulsion of caloric opposes the attraction of matter, and the attraction of matter opposes the repulsion of caloric ; and that the repellency of one, and the the attraction of the other, are regulated by the same principle. It is upon this simple arrangement that I have no doubt depend all the infinitely varied and seemingly complicated processes of nature.'

The nature of caloric being thus established, the author employs its powers, in conjunction with those of attraction, to explain all the different sets of phenomena which have commonly been attributed to the agency of different principles. The electric fluid is supposed to be the same with caloric ; the compression of the rubber of the machine against the cylinder urges the particles of the cushion nearer together ; and ' a portion of caloric is of course forced out.' If any dense body be applied to the cylinder, the caloric will be attracted to it in a compressed state, and will fly off in a luminous form. As fast as the cushion loses caloric, all the neighbouring bodies tend to restore it ; and it will be seen entering the cushion, in the same manner as the cushion imparts it to the cylinder. The explanation of the Leyden jar is less simple and intelligible :

' If a glass jar, coated nearly to the top with some dense substance, as tinfoil, &c. be connected by means of a metal chain to the prime conductor, the caloric liberated from the cushion would, by this continuation of dense substances, be attracted in a compressed state towards the tinfoil, where it would be every way surrounded, either by glass or air. Now the air is of very little density, and therefore does not attract the caloric in near so considerable a quantity as the tinfoil ; and glass, from its peculiar modification, allows the caloric a free passage through it. It does not therefore become compressed or accumulated in it, and consequently is not imparted to the surrounding bodies, or abstracted from the tinfoil, in any considerable quantity. The caloric therefore cannot escape from the jar so quickly as it may be supplied, and thus becomes more and more compressed and accumulated in it : and at length, when the compression is so considerable as to cause the repellency of the particles to overcome the attraction by which they are drawn towards matter, they fly off in rays, or straight lines, through the surrounding medium from the knob of the jar.'

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The next subject which Mr. Sellon undertakes to develop is that of light and heat. He remarks concerning them that 'variety of arguments have been adduced to prove that they are caused by the operation of two distinct agents. I think, however, that the clearest experiments prove them to be merely effects, or sensations, produced by the agency of the *same substance, caloric.*' In conformity with the opinions that have been explained above, the two effects, light and heat, are supposed to be produced by the operation of the two leading properties of caloric, its expanding and its repelling powers. The sensation of heat is excited whenever caloric exists in a body in sufficient quantity to expand it: but, when the repulsion of caloric has been so far increased by compression as to call into action its repulsive force, 'the repellency of its particles will overcome the opposition excited by the attraction of the adjacent matter, and it will throw itself off in rays through the surrounding medium.' These rays, striking the eye, produce in it the sensation of light. — The author then illustrates his principle that heat depends on the quantity of caloric which is necessary to overcome attraction, and light on the velocity given to its particles by compression; and he endeavours to explain the way in which sometimes heat exists without light, and sometimes light without heat. — The phenomena of colors next fall under his review. He combats the opinion that different colors depend on different kinds of matter: but he supposes that the differences may all be explained on the idea of one substance, caloric, causing all the variety of colors, according as it exists in a greater or less degree of intensity.

'If then colour depends on the quantity of caloric which is reflected from any object, all the colours united will produce that which is caused by the reflection of the *greatest* quantity of caloric, or white. For the same reason, blue and yellow, mixed in a proper proportion, will become green, because that colour is caused by the reflection of a quantity of caloric, intermediate between the two; so orange and green will produce yellow; and upon the same principle we may exactly calculate, what proportion of what colours united will produce any given colour.'

We do not think that it is necessary to follow the author through the several sections in which he applies his principles to chemical attraction, combustion, fermentation, vegetation, &c. The reasoning employed is all of the same kind, and displays the same merits and the same defects.

ART. XI. *The Elements of the Science of Money*, founded on Principles of the Law of Nature. By John Prince Smith, Esq., of Gray's-Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 496. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

THE public are here presented with a work which professes to be an elementary treatise on an abstruse and difficult subject; and it is but justice to the author to state that, in point of information and ability, he is not unqualified for such an undertaking. The treatise is divided into three books, and is preceded by a short summary of the law of nature. In his first book, Mr. Smith, pursuing the synthetic method, explains with great clearness and distinctness the origin, nature, and functions of money; considers it as a measure of value; defines the terms *price* and *value*; lays open the source of mercantile profits; shews to what the increase of money is owing, and what are the effects of such increase; descants on the qualities of coins; points out the mischiefs arising from their debasement; and states the mode in which a paper-currency occasions the same ill effects. This part of the volume presents us with more of novelty than might be expected on so beaten a topic.

In the second book, the author treats of the substitution of credit for money in exchange, sets forth its ordinary effects, and exposes its abuses when carried to undue and unwarrantable lengths. The third and last book treats of national debt, to which are ascribed the introduction and prevalence of circulating credit. In an article of the Appendix, Mr. Smith sets before his readers the evils which must finally arise out of our present system, if continued. These are represented as highly calamitous and awful; and statesmen and senators are earnestly exhorted to take measures to alleviate, and, as far as it can be done, to avert them.

The author is of opinion that the present volume develops both the advantages and the disadvantages of the paper-system. He observes, at the conclusion :

‘ In as far as it has enabled commercial men to borrow a capital of all the rest of the community, that system has extended commerce, and, while it depreciated money rather slowly, it improved manufactures, provided employment for the poor, and rendered cheap many useful and necessary commodities. This was its principal operation from the peace of 1783 to the year 1797; but, since that time, it has chiefly assisted in the support of war and the increase of taxes; and now that the commerce of Europe and of America is excluded from the British isles, manufactures are rapidly falling into decay, and merchants sinking into bankruptcy.

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'This must continue, till the state of trade and manufactures is reduced to the level of domestic consumption, and the labourers who are without work and without food have found either new means of subsistence, employment in the armies, or rest in their graves; unless peace shall speedily open new outlets of commerce, and revive, ere they sink for ever, those manufactures which were so lately the pride of Britain and the envy of the world.'

An interesting and valuable part of this work is that in which the author states the injustice, and the moral ill effects, of the depreciation of the circulating medium; and that portion of it is not less to be commended in which he dwells on the difficulties that must attend every attempt to restore the circulation of coin. These we have always considered as most serious; and in truth we see no practicable way of surmounting them: but, as Mr. Smith observes, the attempt must and will be made. 'The power,' he says, 'which laid its seals upon the coffers of the bank will, in due time, be compelled of necessity to remove them: for those who direct the councils, who collect the revenue, and who wield the sword of the state, will discover in the end, that, by excluding coin from circulation, they wage a destructive war against themselves.'

We agree with the author in thinking that this great event cannot take place, without a sudden and universal change of value in all articles that are bought and sold for money; as well as that it will be attended with the utmost confusion in the liquidation of all debts and credits, and in the payment of all taxes, customs, duties, rents, and annuities.

The same power, which enacted the restoration of coin at the end of six months from the restoration of peace, will doubtless extend the period: but still the period will arrive in which it must be effected, and the protraction of it will only render it the more difficult. To direct attention to this great event, to ascertain its consequences, to prepare the public mind for them, and to invite public men to devise means for warding them off, are most laudable and patriotic efforts: but we cannot help thinking that the author, by coupling his great object with the various discussions which are to be found in his volume, and with the elementary statements which occupy so great a part of it, will wholly fail in making a general impression. At this day, we conceive, it was unnecessary to demonstrate the depreciation of the existing currency; while to set forth its consequences, particularly its moral ill effects, and to state the difficulties which must attend the restoration of coin and the momentous results of such a measure, would rank among the highest services which persons of leisure, information,

tion, and ability, could render to their country. Were the author before us to undertake this task, and to confine himself to these material points, we are convinced that he would be intitled to our acknowledgements.

As an elementary work, this production has been prepared too much with a view to a particular end, and has been penned in too much haste, to justify us in examining it as we should scrutinize a scientific treatise. It contains several questionable positions, and some evident errors ; yet it exhibits the powers of the author in many respects to advantage. His information is respectable, and he reasons with ability : but his want of judgment in pursuing his object is extreme.

An account of several books on this subject will be found in our lxist Vol. N. S. p. 417.

ART. XII. *An Account of the Gold Coast of Africa ; with a brief History of the African Company.* By Henry Meredith, Esq., Member of the Council, and Governor of Winnebah Fort. 8vo, pp. 264. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

HAVING resided several years in that part of Guinea which is called the Gold Coast, and being strongly impressed with an idea of its fertility and commercial importance, Mr. Meredith has assumed the pen with the view of giving to the public a more accurate conception of these advantages. The interest which we take in that quarter ought not, he maintains, to be lessened by the abolition of the slave-trade, because the country offers other means of employing capital, which are more honourable and equally profitable. By extending cultivation, the climate may be gradually rendered less unfavourable to European constitutions, and various products may be introduced with success from our West-India colonies. The circumstance of the territory being already peopled, though less desirable in the eye of the calculators who deem it a delightful thing to acquire a vast tract of land for nothing, will be viewed very differently by those who are aware how much the progress of improvement depends on the command of labour. In that respect, Africa has evidently the advantage of the western hemisphere : but, while we concede this point to Mr. Meredith, we should require many additional assurances before we advised any of our countrymen to hazard emigration from their native clime. We are less disposed, therefore, to listen to this author's general reasoning on colonies and settlements, than to put a value on the clear information afforded by him regarding the particular region of which he possesses a

local knowledge. Hitherto, the Gold Coast has been chiefly visited by "boisterous captains of the sea," and the public have not for many years received a distinct account of it. We proceed, then, to extract some of the most remarkable particulars in Mr. M.'s book; avoiding, as much as we can, matters of mere locality, and giving a preference to those which are applicable to the population at large.

At Cape-Coast Castle are the head quarters of the British forts and settlements on the Gold Coast and kingdom of Whydah. Its name was originally *Cales Corso*, having been built by the Portuguese, ceded by them to the Dutch, and taken from the latter by us in 1665; since which it has remained quietly in our possession. It was, when it came into our hands, an insignificant place in point of strength: but, by progressive improvements, it has been made a respectable fortress, capable, if adequately garrisoned, of beating off a considerable force by sea. On the land-side, however, it is commanded by neighbouring grounds. The town of Cape-Coast is situated close to the castle, and contains about 8000 inhabitants. It is an ill built, dirty place; and, since the stoppage of the slave-trade, its traffic is confined to gold. As to the morals of the inhabitants, the abolition of that trade has been highly advantageous, money having formerly been made too rapidly and by very improper means. The customs of the country are rude, and almost barbarous. Plurality of wives is common: but the sex is so degraded, that we might more properly speak of plurality of servants. Wives are objects of regular contracts; and the mother having the uncontrouled privilege of disposing of her daughter, the courtship generally consists in a succession of presents to the former. One of their rude practices is a kind of ordeal called 'taking of doom,' which consists in administering to an accused person a certain quantity of the bark of a tree that is supposed to be poisonous. This bark the suspected is obliged to masticate and swallow; after which, large draughts of water are taken; and guilt is presumed if the whole be retained in the stomach, or innocence if it be rejected. Notwithstanding these absurdities, the laws are said to be strictly executed, and serious crimes seldom occur. Theft among the natives is not common: but all that belongs to a white man is considered as fair game, because detection in that case is not likely to bring down severe punishment on the offender.

Among other oppressive usages of the natives, which the abolition of the slave-trade has tended to soften, was the process known by the name of *panyaring*; or the seizure and sale of the person of a debtor by his creditors, after proof had been
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given of certain delays in the payment of the debt. It may naturally be concluded that, as long as a tempting premium existed, false witnesses would abound, and that many innocent persons would be seized and brought to sale. Another custom, which cannot be named without horror, and which happily is not frequent, is the sacrifice of human beings at the death of a king.

Our knowledge of the country of Guinea does not extend far from the coast, the want of large rivers having prevented us from that free ingress which the Portuguese have obtained into the kingdom of Congo. Of the metallic and mineral riches of this region, we know none except gold. The natives, seeing gold bought up with so much avidity by Europeans, are inattentive to other productions, and are wholly ignorant of the mode of rendering them useful if they found them. That abstemiousness in eating and drinking, which occurs so much more frequently in warm than in cold climates, is remarkable in this part of Africa: but with regard to the desire of gain, we can by no means give the natives on the coast the merit of moderation, their intercourse with Europeans having led them into a habit of considering that every thing should be sacrificed for money.

• When there is a prospect of a good bargain to be obtained, every species of low cunning and mercenary artifice is practised to acquire it. They accommodate themselves with much ingenuity and facility, to our humours and fancies; every attitude, every expression, is carefully recommended by flexibility and supplication; yet they artfully avoid too great a desire of obtaining what would turn out profitable or advantageous to them: and when they know that their wishes are not to be gratified as easily as was expected, disappointment is carefully concealed, and a seeming indifference is preserved in their behaviour. —

• Those who gain a livelihood by fishing, are a laborious people; and our knowledge of them extends a little further than of the trader, because they are employed frequently by us, as canoe-men and labourers. —

• Men who follow an agricultural life, and who chiefly inhabit the inland parts, will be found more uniform in their conduct than the traders or fishermen. To consider them in a general view, and by making allowances for the failings attached to the uncivilized part of mankind, they may be considered a well-meaning set of men. They are divested of that low cunning and deceitful artifice known and practised by those who gain a livelihood by a more intimate connection with Europeans. They possess no small share of honesty, sincerity, and benevolence; and are strangers to the corrupt and licentious conduct plainly to be seen among the inhabitants of the water-side.

On the subject of climate, Mr. Meredith's testimony is more favourable than we should have expected, relative to a country so

near the equator. The sun being more obscured, throughout the year, in the immediate vicinity of the line than at some distance, has less power; so that, in the hottest months, the thermometer on the Gold Coast seldom rises above 88 or 90 degrees.

The soil appears in general to be of such happy variety as to be capable of any sort of cultivation. In the course of the year, two rainy seasons occur, beginning respectively in June and in November. Of the two, the former is by much the more remarkable, the quantity of rain that falls being very great. At the end of July, on the cessation of the rains, commences the season of fog and exhalation; which, in swampy places, is extremely unhealthy; and this, in Mr. Meredith's opinion, is the only dangerous portion of the year. — The winds on the Gold Coast are as regular and as mild as in any part of the globe. The sea-breeze begins at about nine or ten o'clock in the morning, after the sun's power has become considerable; and it declines, as in the West Indies, in the evening, when his heat is diminished. It is then regularly succeeded by the land-wind, which continues all night. The sea-breeze is always accounted salubrious: but the effect of the land-wind depends, in course, on the state of the country over which it blows, marshes and swamps having naturally a tendency to charge it with noxious vapour. One of the most striking phenomena of this part of Africa is the N. E. wind, called Harmattan.

'The Harmattan comes on indiscriminately at any hour of the day, at any time of the tide, or at any period of the moon; and continues sometimes only a day or two, sometimes five or six days, and has been known to last fifteen or sixteen. There are generally three or four returns of it every season: it blows with a moderate force, not so strongly as the sea-breeze, but somewhat more so than the land-wind. A fog or haze is one of the peculiarities which always accompany a Harmattan; extreme dryness makes another extraordinary property of it: no dew falls during the continuance of this wind; nor is there the least appearance of moisture in the atmosphere; vegetables of every kind are very much injured; all tender plants, and most of the productions of the garden are destroyed; the grass withers, and becomes dry like hay. — The natives take this opportunity, of the extreme dryness of the grass and young trees, to set fire to them, especially near their roads; not only to keep the road open to travellers, but to destroy the shelter which long grass and thickets of young trees would afford to skulking parties of their enemies. A fire, then lighted, flies with such rapidity as to endanger those who travel; in that situation, a common method of escape is, on discovering a fire to windward, to set the grass on fire to leeward, and then follow your own fire.' —

'The effect which this wind has on furniture that is not solid, is very extraordinary; it exposes the deceptions of the cabinet-maker in

in a most singular manner ; it contracts the flooring of chambers so much, that light is admitted ; and whatever is said above or beneath, may be understood. The process of evaporation during this wind, proceeds with astonishing rapidity.*

With regard to health, the effect of the Harmattan is favourable, since it is believed to brace the system, and to put an end to many complaints which originate in relaxation. It happens that Dr. Lind has given a different opinion concerning this wind : but his information was in all probability derived from persons who had witnessed its effect in the neighbourhood of deserts, swamps, or woods. As to the climate of Guinea, generally, Dr. Lind's testimony does not differ from that of Mr. Meredith. He has no doubt that, were it free from under-wood and swamps, it would not be more unhealthy than the island of Barbadoes. On elevated spots, and in the few places in which cultivation has been carried to some length, Europeans are found to do well. In other situations, greater precaution is requisite : but the grand rule in this, as in all warm climates, is temperance in diet, and a temperance not less essential in the regulation of passion. Early rising, the cold bath, and a restricted use of animal food, are among the most necessary customs for this country.

After having supplied us with much useful information relative to the climate and the inhabitants of the Gold Coast, Mr. Meredith proceeds to recommend certain improvements in our public establishments in that settlement. They are maintained, it appears, (p. 264.) at very little expence ; and his wish is that our military force at Cape-Coast Castle, consisting at present of scarcely a company of soldiers, should be increased to two hundred effective men. Such an augmentation of our strength, by giving security to settlers, would pave the way for the introduction of many improvements in the neighbourhood : in which a beginning has lately been made by laying out roads, erecting cottages, and planting pieces of ground. Though we dissent from Mr. Meredith concerning the probability of the natives changing their habits so far as to become consumers, to any considerable extent, of European commodities, we have no doubt that means might be devised for carrying on a beneficial trade with them. Slaves and gold-dust have hitherto been reckoned the profitable articles in this country : but, if cultivation were extended, and regular industry diffused, we should ere long find much greater advantage from other branches of commerce.

Mr. M. disclaims all pretensions to elegance of composition ; and, in a work of this plain kind, style is not a primary consideration. Without meaning, however, to affix any censure on

a modest candidate, we cannot help regretting that some further pains were not taken in the selection of materials. From gentlemen who are not professedly scholars, we expect none of the graces of style: but the plainest work cannot fail to gain by subjecting its contents to a rigid scrutiny, before it is sent to the printer. In the present case, several unimportant particulars might have been omitted, and a few repetitions avoided: yet, on the whole, the book is less exceptionable with regard to such points than many that pass through our hands.

ART. XIII. *A New View of Society; or Essays on the Principle of the Formation of the Human Character, and the Application of the Principle to Practice.* By one of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the County of Lanark. Essay I. and II. 8vo. pp. 87. Cadell and Davies. 1813.

WE take an early opportunity of noticing these essays, because they appear to us not likely to meet with the attention to which they are intitled: the author being evidently unaccustomed to composition, and allowing an excellent cause to suffer from a vague and unimpressive mode of supporting it. It appears that he has filled for many years the important station of manager of the extensive cotton-mills which are established in the neighbourhood of Lanark in Scotland; and, in this situation, he has had ample opportunity of ascertaining the practical effect of a plan of persevering attention and kindness in reclaiming the habits of a very unpromising class of society. The establishment was commenced in 1784 by the late Mr. Dale of Glasgow; and, as the situation possessed no attraction except the convenience of water-falls, it had been found almost impracticable to induce any respectable part of the lower orders to settle around it. The neighbouring peasantry, accustomed to the open air and to change of occupation, disdained the idea of working early and late, day after day, within the walls of a cotton-mill. Few, therefore, were willing to try the experiment, except persons who were destitute of friends, of employment, and generally of character; and, as their residence at the manufactory was a favour, every man was allowed to "do that which was right in his own eyes." The population was literally immersed in idleness, poverty, and crime; it needs scarcely be added, in debt, and out of health. Mr. Dale, advancing in years, and finding that his exertions for the improvement of his fellow-creatures were disappointed, became desirous of retiring from a concern which

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he had never been able personally to superintend, his other occupations obliging him to reside at a distance. He accordingly disposed of it to some English merchants and manufacturers; one of whom, Mr. Owen, the author of these tracts, undertook to manage the establishment, and fixed his residence in the midst of this singular community.

Mr. Owen had been previously in the habit of superintending numerous bodies of work-people in the neighbourhood of Manchester, and in that capacity he had been successful: but, in his new situation, he had to encounter a variety of prejudices. He was a stranger, differing from those about him as to religion in a manner which, however slight in reality, appeared to them serious; and, finally, he was unacquainted with the local ideas and habits. The contrast between his constant inspection and the laxity of former overseers appeared, in the eyes of the manufacturers, a proof that he had no other object than to "squeeze," as they termed it, "the greatest sum of gain out of their labour." Accordingly, during two years, the scene exhibited little else than a regular attack and defence of prejudices and mal-practices; the work-people being wholly unwilling to give him credit for the sincerity of his solicitude for their welfare. At last, however, patience and perseverance in a firm and well-directed kindness began to overcome their incredulity. They gradually yielded to him a portion of their confidence; and, as this increased, he was enabled, more and more, to develope his plans for their amelioration. Never did a society stand in greater need of reform: 'Theft and the receipt of stolen goods was their trade, idleness and drunkenness their habit, falsehood and deception their garb; dissensions, civil and religious, their daily practice.' To remedy these evils, not one legal punishment was inflicted by Mr. Owen: but a variety of checks, and other regulations of prevention, were introduced. It was explained to them that, by fair and useful occupation, they could really earn more than they had hitherto gained by dishonest practices; and the persons among themselves best qualified to reason were made the instruments of communicating advice and instruction. By various arrangements, the difficulties of committing crimes were increased, and detection was facilitated. Jealousy having been excited by the preference given to one religious sect over another, this preference was dropped, and equal encouragement extended to all who shewed themselves actuated by conscience in their religious belief. The plan of receiving apprentices from public charities was abolished; permanent settlers with large families were encouraged in lieu of them; and the children were kept at school, and prevented from working in the mills, until the

age of ten or twelve. The result of an adherence, year after year, to these judicious regulations, was to render the inhabitants of New Lanark industrious, temperate, healthy, faithful to their employers, and kind to each other.

The practical conclusion drawn by Mr. Owen from this memorable reformation is, that a government has it in its power to introduce the most extensive improvements into the manners and habits of its subjects. 'Withdraw,' he says, 'those circumstances which tend to create crime in the human character, and crime will not be created. Replace them with those circumstances which are calculated to form habits of order, regularity, temperance, industry, and, upon the most certain data, these qualities may be formed.' One of his chief rules was to make the smallest possible alteration at one time, rendering the change nearly imperceptible: which gradual course had the effect of removing the inclination to resistance, and of giving time to weaken the force of long established prejudices. 'I hesitate not to say,' he adds, 'that the members of any community may, by degrees, be trained to live *without crime, without punishment, without idleness, and without poverty*: for each of these is the effect of error in the various systems prevalent throughout the world. They are all the direct consequence of ignorance.' — 'Any character from the best to the worst, from the most ignorant to the most enlightened, may be given to any community, even to the world at large, by applying certain means; which are, to a great extent, at the command, and under the controul, or easily made so, of those who possess the government of nations.' In another passage, (Essay I. p. 13.) he observes that the grand motive, on which he builds his hope of success, is the 'conviction that the happiness of the individual is inseparably connected with that conduct which promotes the happiness of the community.'

The chief fault of Mr. Owen's Essays consists in a deficiency of particular and definite illustration. General exhortations and firm assurances of success are repeated, again and again, without considering how little the bulk of readers are prepared for the acceptance of these new and comprehensive doctrines; and the facts which we have noticed are almost the only parts of the tract that are exempt from the censure of vagueness and generality. An ardent mind, full of the efficacy of a favourite project, is naturally led to expatiate, with unbounded confidence, on the certainty of its success. We, for our part, have no hesitation in concurring with Mr. Owen in his anticipations of future good, extensive as they are, and sanguine as they will generally be accounted: we, too, should probably have written in a similar manner, had we undertaken the task of disse-

disseminating the knowledge of such improvements, at an early period of our literary career : but our experience of existing prejudices, and still more of deficient knowledge in those to whom the community naturally looks for the introduction of any general change, has shewn us the necessity of a cautious and guarded course in making efforts for national improvement. Mr. Owen would have been more successful had he set out by publishing a journal, or explicit narrative, of his progressive advance in the improvement of the inhabitants of New Lanark. General conclusions might have been safely left to the judgment of the reader, or postponed until the author had brought his report to a close, and was proceeding to shew that the good thus effected arose not from local or particular circumstances, but from causes calculated to operate on human nature at large. Mr. Owen seems to flatter himself with an early attention to his plan, on the part of ministers and public men : but the views and occupations of persons in office, of whatever party, must undergo great alteration before they come forwards as the direct patrons of such a change as he recommends. The progress of general improvement is infinitely slower than he seems to be aware. On looking around the uninviting neighbourhood of New Lanark, he may observe, in all directions, how greatly the value of land may be increased by the simple expedient of granting leases : yet, notwithstanding the evidence of experience, the parliamentary exhortations of Mr. Coke, and the angry declamations of Mr. Loudon, a very large proportion of our landholders, south of the Tweed, adhere to the antiquated and unprofitable practice of letting from year to year. If our advancement be thus slow when individual profit is so directly implicated, we are not justified in expecting a quicker movement in affairs of general concern. Mr. Owen must therefore be prepared for a smaller share of attention than he has expected : but his ultimate hopes may rest on a solid basis, as well from the improvement which civilization infallibly makes in every free country, as from the more direct benefit which is about to result from the recent discoveries in national instruction.

ART. XIV. *Observations on the Choice of a School*, submitted to the Attention of Parents, with a View to assist them in forming a Judgment on that important Subject. By the Rev. C. LL. LL.D. Small 8vo. pp. 128. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

It is to be hoped that the modern improvements in education are only forerunners of greater advances; and it may happen that,

that, in a generation or two, people will have occasion to be surprised that our seminaries remained so long on the old system. We may be allowed to flatter ourselves with a kind of double amendment, — in the choice of the objects of education as well as in the mode of teaching. Of the two, the latter chiefly is affected by the institutions which are now gaining ground so rapidly: but much also may be done with regard to the former. Under this impression, we took up the little volume before us with some interest, though previously unacquainted with the author's name, and not prepossessed in his favour by a mysterious and querulous preface. We were glad, however, to find, on farther perusal, that the preface was the least inviting part; and that, though the work contained some things of rather an odd description, others were intitled to a share of public attention.

Dr. Lloyd (whom we understand to be the author) justly regrets that parents, in chusing a school, direct their chief inquiry to the card of expences, without exercising sufficient vigilance respecting the character of the master or his assistants. The great fault of schoolmasters, he says, is a propensity to finesse and trick; a habit of imposing on the public by disguising their own inadequacy, as well as the rate of expence at their school. Nothing, he adds, is more notorious than that a large proportion of teachers are deficient in the learning which is required for their occupation; and this arises from the preference given to cheap schools, and from the consequent discouragement to men of education. Our foundation-schools are generally well provided, because they furnish motives for competition, and because the masters must be graduates at an University: but they are too few for the opulent youth of the country; and small schools, moreover, are preferred on account of their greater safety to morals. It is in the case of the latter, therefore, that pains should be taken to guard against an imprudent choice. An ignorant master, however good his intentions, is a great nuisance to society, because he is the means of losing to a youth a valuable portion of time.

We must confess that it is a very difficult matter for parents to form an opinion of schools. Men in the habit of attending closely to their particular business cannot be supposed to know much about books, or about the ability of those who profess to teach. If they address themselves to a friend of the school-master, they may expect a partial testimony; and, on inquiring of parents who have had children at the school in question, the answer is, in general, confined to manners and temper. By way of aiding parents in this weighty election, Dr. Lloyd recommends an inquiry as to the success and public repute of a school;

school; since in most cases, except that of a beginning academy, general fame is a better criterion than private testimony. Inquiry should likewise be made respecting the education of the master, and whether he was intended for a learned profession. Generally speaking, it is among the clergy, whether of the Church or the Dissenters, that we are to seek for the teachers of our youth.

Dr. Lloyd is an ardent advocate for the prosecution of classical study, particularly of the Greek language. Seldom do we find, he says, a lad of fifteen or sixteen, who has much more than a smattering of this 'queen of tongues.' The acquisition is evidently beyond his competency without the aid of an *able* master; and such a master is not often to be seen, because the attainment of Latin forms in general the boundary of a youth's classical study at school. In this stage of education, he observes, 'a teacher is seldom sorry at losing his pupil, and many of them are forward in pronouncing that his education is *finished*.' When in the course of years, the master and scholar meet again, and renew intercourse as companions, 'Greek is a subject from which both shrink as if by mutual consent.' Dr. L. is favourable, likewise, to teaching the French language, as well from its general use as from the valuable works with which it abounds. In fact, the leading feature of this tract is the recommendation of the study of languages in preference (p. 32.) to Arithmetic, and still more (p. 87.) to what are called the 'Arts and Sciences,' comprehending under the latter, Geography, and Natural Philosophy. In these points, however, we cannot agree with the Doctor. Much as we should regret a neglect of Latin, and highly as we should prize an increased attention to Greek, we must be cautious in recommending either to that almost exclusive attention which appears to be Dr. L.'s object. He makes no admission of the barren nature of the study of languages. Yet acquisitions of this kind, it should be allowed, teach rather new names than new ideas; and there is no comparison with regard to the extent of additional information obtained in the time devoted to a foreign language, and in that which is given to such studies as Geography, History, or Natural Philosophy, in our own. Dr. Lloyd quotes Scotland (p. 37.) in support of his theory: but it will, we believe, be admitted that the teaching of Latin is and has long been much too general in that part of the empire. It is a common notion there that the years of boyhood cannot be suitably employed otherwise than in the study of this language; an idea proceeding from an ignorance of how many more things we have to teach than time to learn. The consequence is that young men, following afterward a line of employment

ployment unconnected with literature, forget the painful acquisition of their early years, and regret that so much time has been given to it. We are in hopes, however, that the recent improvements in the mode of teaching will greatly abridge the time which is necessary to acquire Greek or Latin; for we see no reason why these improvements should not be as applicable to the classics as to more humble studies. In that case, our objection of loss of time will be in a great measure removed; and Dr. Lloyd's recommendation of Greek and Latin, for which we cannot help feeling a secret enthusiasm, may be sanctioned without a pernicious interference with remaining studies.

In other respects, we are inclined to differ very little from Dr. L. Nothing, we are of opinion, is in general less founded than the notion of parents that their children have a natural bent to one kind of pursuit, and an aversion from another. How many youths and men, it is truly said, (p. 69.) complain that their wishes were consulted during their boyish years; and how often do they pretend unfitness for a branch of education, merely because application to it is irksome. On another point too, we mean, the charge of dullness, Dr. L. makes some good remarks. 'Dullness (p. 66.) is a very equivocal quality; it is sometimes temporary; it is generally comparative. Like genius and ability, it is modified by circumstances of opportunity, diligence, and treatment. Very few are what is called incapable of learning.' The Doctor's anxiety for religion and the study of the Scriptures cannot be too highly commended:—but, respecting another topic (p. 81.), the danger of teachers subjecting themselves and their pupils to too great confinement, we are scarcely aware of the necessity of much admonition. A particular case may be found, in which, from anxiety to gain a character, confinement may be carried too far: but we have much more latitude for expatiating on the too great number of holidays in most of our old established schools. Sedentary employment, too long continued, will certainly be hurtful to the body: but this would be better obviated by a regulation of the hours of each day, than by a frequent sacrifice of whole days and weeks.

The subject of education, or even the more limited topicⁿ of the choice of a school, is calculated to suggest many more reflections than we find in this little tract. Dr. L. has rather thrown out hints than laid down a regular plan. His object, to use his own language, was to 'rouse the inquiry, to alarm the fears, to excite the hopes, and to assist the choice of parents.' Without flattering him with having accomplished this comprehensive purpose, we would say that he may enjoy the satisfaction

dissatisfaction of being instrumental in giving currency to some useful admonitions: but he would have succeeded better had he made the directions (p. 92. et seq.) for the guidance of parents somewhat more in number, as well as more explicit.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1813.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 15. *A Compendium of Angiology and Myology*, arranged in a tabular Form. By a Member of the College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. 2s. Highley. 1812.

In a short preface, the author thus explains the object and intention of this work:

‘The origin and insertion of muscles being the most difficult part of anatomy to remember, has induced the author to publish the following pages; hoping they may serve as a book of reference to practitioners who may have forgotten the minutiae, and less important parts of anatomy, yet wish to bear in mind that which is absolutely necessary to be known; also to students, who are generally not so much at a loss to recollect the appearances and peculiarities of muscles, as the parts they arise from, or are inserted into.’

Then follow the tables of the muscles, occupying 19 pages, to which are subjoined those of the arteries in two sheets. The muscles are arranged in the usual manner, according to the parts of the body to which they are attached; and the arteries are traced from the large trunks to the smaller branches. — The principal merit of a work of this description is accuracy; and, as far as we have been able to examine it, the present tract appears to possess this requisite. We must, however, observe that the title does not entirely correspond to the contents of the pamphlet; the term ‘angiology’ being equally applicable to vessels of all descriptions; whereas the arteries alone are noticed.

Art. 16. *A Review of Mr. Everard Home's Practical Observations on the Diseases of the Prostate Gland*, and of his important Anatomical Discovery. By Jessé Foot, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Highley. 1812.

The discovery by Mr. (now Sir E.) Home, to which the author here refers, is that of an additional part or appendage to the prostate gland, which appears to have been overlooked by former anatomists, and yet, from its situation, is productive of very distressing symptoms. The reality of this discovery has not, as far as we know, been called in question until the publication of this pamphlet; and here it is attacked, not by Mr. Foot assuring us that he has carefully searched for and has not been able to find it, but by his endeavouring to turn into ridicule the account which is given of it. Mr. Foot was a strenuous opponent of Mr. Hunter, and he seems to have transferred his enmity to his relative Mr. Home. Hence the principal arguments in

this work, if arguments they can be called, are employed in pointing out supposed inconsistencies in the description of the part, and in shewing that its existence cannot be real, because it had not been observed by former anatomists. All this is given under the garb of wit and irony, as probably the author would consider it, but which we are too often obliged to denominate abuse. The following specimens may suffice :

‘ This diminutive stranger is concealed from Mr. Everard Home’s sight anteriorly by the insertion of the vesiculæ seminales into the prostate, but it accommodates the rout of the vesiculæ seminales by graciously permitting them to travel round it. It is, as he says, connected firmly with the prostate, anteriorly, but it is distinct, posteriorly; neither Morgagni, nor Hunter, nor any other anatomist past or present had any idea of it.

‘ This diminutive stranger possesses perhaps as many powerful and mischievous qualities as ever fell to the lot of any component part of the human frame. Whenever it is irritated or diseased it throws out a process in the form of a nipple at first, independent of the prostate, which solely, from an increase in its dimensions, produces the most fatal cases hitherto known of diseases of these parts, and without which such cases never could have occurred.’ —

‘ Being provided against the doubts that may arise from the inquiry of any future anatomical inspector, by a declaration that in all cases this gland, as he once called it, or this middle lobe, that he now calls it, is not [however] sometimes to be seen, and concluding with the determination of defining the prostate gland to be what he calls lobular, and this, his discovery, the middle lobe annexed to it : Mr. Everard Home then proceeds as follows :

‘ P. 17. Section I. “ This lobe, in the earlier periods of life, when the body of the gland is in a healthy state, is small, nor does it appear to be liable to become enlarged even when the body and the lateral lobes have been considerably increased in size.”

‘ So that it appears that the middle lobe remains for ever small, whilst the lateral lobes and body are growing. It appears that a part of a same substance retains its dwarfish state whilst other parts are growing ! This is a discovery ! it deserves a day of jubilee !’

We shall give one farther quotation, illustrative of Mr. Foot’s candour.

‘ We have to lament it, (he says) and it is a great pity, that Mr. Everard Home has not told us the true motive for writing this work, and leaving out of it caustic, which he had owed so much to, and not saying a single syllable at parting about the result of the good or harm it has done in his practice. If he had but spared two lines as an offering for that purpose, only to have told us that in none of those cases recited in this work, nor in none like them, he had ever applied caustic either by mistake or design, we should then have been better able to have gone along with him, as to the intention of this work ; but for want of this information, we are left to form various and hazardous conjectures, every one reasoning according to his capacity and to the view in which the motive meets his observation. Be-

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sides, had Mr. Everard Home given his true motive, no one could afterwards have given it a harsh or wrong construction by any possible mistake. A review of a work is connected with a review of the writer's intention and the moral state of his mind. The motive surely could not be that his caustic volcano is burnt out, and that he is here to be seen under the pretence of a mystical display of a new gland, and old flexible gum elastic catheters, springing a new mine upon us. Nor could the motive be, that as he is here treating on old complaints from a newly discovered fact, the old patients visited with such afflictions might shun his consultations from fear that he would stir the embers of his volcano, and burn them afresh.

This is unworthy of the liberal profession to which Mr. Foot belongs.

Art. 17. *Hints for the Recovery and Preservation of Health.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Callow. 1813.

This pamphlet appears to be written by some well-meaning person, whose knowledge is unfortunately not equal to his benevolence. The subjects on which he treats are diet, air, exercise, sleep, clothing, and the warm and cold bath. Diet is, however, the point on which he the most strenuously insists; and on this subject he directs his principal attention to endeavour to dissuade his readers from the use of animal food. We see so little likelihood of this doctrine ever becoming prevalent, that it is not very important to spend much time in shewing the futility of the arguments that are urged by the author in favour of the practice. Indeed, he treats the question in a very summary manner; for he deems it sufficient to assume, as the basis of his reasoning, that the greatest part of our diseases and infirmities are induced by the improper kind of life which we lead, and that our principal transgression consists in the bad choice which we make in our diet.

I am led, from much observation, and considerable experience, to think, that the great error in diet lies in the too common use of animal food. The flesh of most animals has a tendency to vitiate the humours, especially that of tame ones, which is seldom in a healthy state. If it be said, that when once the food is digested, it matters not what it was; it may be answered, that some kinds of food may injure the stomach, though they are at length digested; and that, the residuum must be considered, which, lying many hours in the intestines, may produce mischief. The fumes also arising from a morbid mass, on its first reception into the stomach, cannot be held as insignificant. Indeed the nature of animal food is sufficiently exposed, by the antiseptic accompaniments which are always thought necessary; as hot spices, pickles, &c., and the morbid craving which it causes for strong liquors, acid fruits, &c. — consequences, alone, enough to destroy health. Again, if it be said, that in a state of nature mankind, in many countries, lived almost wholly on animal food, it must be recollected, that the exercise they took to obtain that food, might enable them to digest almost any thing; and, that the animals they devoured were in a state of high health and purity. It must also be observed that the passions of such people were violent, malignant, and

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unsocial;

unsocial ; their minds gloomy and defective in the discriminative faculty ; that

“ War and bloodshed formed their horrid joy !”

and, that their bodies were, at an early period, worn out by attrition. On the other hand, it is well known, that a large portion of the human race subsist on rice, potatoes, bread, and other vegetable food ; and that, that portion can shew the finest symmetry and strength of body, and the best disposition of mind.’

The chief peculiarities of the author on other subjects are that he regards blankets as injurious, objects to the warm bath, is friendly to sleep, and, like some other admirers of unsophisticated nature, directs us to use *distilled water* for drink. The tract is, in general, written in a serious strain : but the author occasionally launches out into some very sarcastic witticisms against *Doctors*, a class of animals which he appears to have included in his general antipathy. They will probably have their revenge on him, before he dies : — or perhaps afterward.

Art. 18. *Cases of Hydrophobia* ; including Dr. Schoolbred’s and Mr. Tymon’s successful Cases ; with some Observations on the Nature and Seat of the Disease. By J. O’Donnel, M.D. 8vo. 2s. Callow. 1813.

We have here the narrative of two cases of hydrophobia that occurred in the neighbourhood of Uxbridge, which were attended by the author ; and the symptoms of which are described with apparent correctness, as well as the state of the body discovered on dissection in the first case, which was opened by Mr. Copeland. He speaks of evident marks of inflammation as exhibiting themselves along the whole intestinal canal, and particularly in the small intestines.

‘ When the stomach was opened, there was the appearance of unusual vascular action ; but in three or four spots, about the size of a sixpence, the internal coat of the stomach was discoloured, of a brown, or approaching to black colour. That I might not be deceived in this appearance, I requested the gentlemen present to observe it particularly, and it was evident that these spots had undergone a very material change of structure, that they were in a state of sphacelation. When I took out the larynx, pharynx, and part of the tongue, for more accurate examination, the epiglottis presented itself with its membrane very highly injected with red blood, as was also the membrane covering the constrictor muscles of the pharynx, and generally the whole of the larynx was very much inflamed.’

Dr. O’Donnel then inserts the cases published by Dr. Schoolbred and Mr. Tymon at Calcutta, where the disease was certainly cured by very copious bleeding. These cases he supposes to be very little known in this country, which he assigns as his reason for quoting them in his pamphlet. As we do not know at what exact time the author sent his work to the press, we must suppose that it was previous to these reports having received very extensive circulation in one of our periodical journals. The cases themselves are extremely interesting ; and we admit with the author that they afford the most

unequivocal proof of the benefit of copious blood-letting. This, however, is all that they prove, for we cannot agree with Dr. O'Donnel in his theory.

'That the nature of the disease is not spasmodic is proved, as far as any thing can be proved, by experience. In no disease has there been a more free use made of opium, camphor, and all the class of medicines denominated antispasmodics, than has been made in this, without the instance of a single cure having been effected by them. That it is a highly inflammatory disease, affecting the stomach in the first instance, and extending from it to the larynx, pharynx, œsophagus, &c. is, I think, probable; and, in support of this opinion, in addition to the evidence we derive from dissection, in numerous cases, the cure of Dr. Schoolbred's case was effected by the only means we know of for curing inflammatory disease, viz. — by bleeding, purging, and vegetable diet.

'The absence of the buffy surface of the blood drawn from Amier cannot well be explained. This extraordinary circumstance may be owing to the peculiar nature of inflammation, produced by morbid animal poison, conveyed, perhaps, through the medium of nerves, not exciting that action in the vascular system which, in ordinary cases of inflammation, causes the lymph to separate from the other parts of the blood after detraction.'

This kind of reasoning, about the peculiar nature of the inflammation that is caused by morbid poisons, is entirely fanciful, and can be regarded only as a set of words without any meaning. Let us feel grateful for the fact, and make a proper application of it, without entangling ourselves in any visionary speculation.

POETRY.

Art. 19. *The Battles of Talavera, Salamanca, Vittoria, and the Pyrenees*, with other Poems. By Richard Pearson, jun. Crown 8vo. 3s. Boards. Cowie and Co. 1813.

If heroes gain victories, they need not *seek* for poets to record them, since the latter follow of course in the train of the former: but it rarely happens that great actions are as well sung as fought. The present volunteer bard of the Wellingtonian victories has not genius equal to the splendors of his subject, and must be classed with those whose zeal surpasses their talents. No description is given of the respective battles which stand as the titles to the several short poems; the object of the writer being merely general panegyric. Little defects we need not specify; and the merit of the poetry may be fairly estimated by the following extract:

'And thou, great Wellington, from whom arise
The fame we bear, the glories that we prize;
Illustrious chief! till mountains fall to dust,
So long thy deeds shall *animate the just*;
So long the *Pyrenees* shall boast thy name,
And rise as trophies to record thy fame.
Whilst they remain, so long shall Gallia know,
That tyrants fall when *Freedom* gives the blow.

' Freedom ! too oft a phrase of double sense,
 Accursed ill, or godlike excellence,
 How many have abus'd thy sacred word,
 To scourge whole nations with a lawless sword !
 How many tyrants have oppress'd the free,
 Beneath thy garb, fair, ill-us'd liberty !
 Professing to remove but fancied pains,
 How many thousands have they bound in chains !
 They tell the frantic crowd, that liberty
 Has no restraint : believe it not, ye free.
 Is liberty the doing as we please,
 What have we farther to secure our ease ?'

Three odes are subjoined to the martial poems : the first is addressed to Friendship, the second has for its subject the Uncertainty of human Joys, and the last is on Conscience. The first stanza of the ode to Friendship concludes by telling us that

' The haughty monarch on his throne
 Would gladly change his lot,
 His sceptre and his crown disown,
 For friendship in a cot.'

We conclude from this stanza that Mr. P. is young. Had he known the world, and studied mankind, he would have felt that pride and ambition care little about friendship, and never dream of happiness in a cottage.

Art. 20. *The Stranger's Visit*, with other minor Poems. By Thomas Mott. Crown 8vo. pp. 100. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

This visit professes to be ' an actual poetical sketch of the scenery, incidents, and reflections which engaged the author's attention, during a day's ramble through a favourite village and its environs, after the absence of many years.' Impressions made by a survey of the spot on which our early hours were passed are generally productive of the poetry of sentiment ; and even people advanced in life have felt a sort of juvenile glow, when they have been called to traverse the paths once worn by their youthful steps, and have at the same time enjoyed the pleasures of melancholy. Mr. Mott's sensations are natural, and many of his readers will participate in his emotions. Changed is the appearance of the scene from that which it presented in days of yore ; and of this change Mr. Mott, — resembling in choice of subject, though not in genius, the author of the *Deserted Village*, — is " the sad historian." Unbefriended by fortune, and experiencing the bitterest domestic griefs, he may be allowed to court a sombre muse :

' Grief stricken, on the sea of life, I've roam'd,
 And in the bark of hope have felt the storms
 Of fate severe, that swept its trackless wilds ;
 But never shed more woe embitter'd tears
 Than those which now relieve me as I view
 The jasmine cover'd cot, the humble roof,

Of him, the earliest of my promis'd friends ;
 Of him, who sought to soothe my orphan griefs
 With comfortings and kindness, such as dwell
 In stranger hearts, form'd in parental moulds.'

Occasionally, Mr. M. digresses to subjects foreign to his village-theme : but he soon returns to it ; and the changes which he remarks in the country-inn must not pass unheeded :

' On cottag'd green the gaudy sign appears,
 In place of cast-off plough, or branch of thorn,
 Once the fam'd spot where the poor man might rest ;
 His labor o'er, and, with refreshing ale
 Forget his cares, and pass th' ev'ning hour
 In happiness. How alter'd now the scene !
 The old oak ballad-pasted settle's gone,
 And on the walls, in place of moral thoughts,
 And harvest rhimes, and carols, for the day
 Of hallow'd joy, the galling taxor's sheets,
 Assessor's bills of notice, and rewards
 For thieves and murd'ers, now are only seen,
 Whilst the rude host, face-swollen, with purple hue,
 Lords it o'er all that dare to speak, and think,
 In contradiction to the garbl'd stuff
 Of loyal politics he thunders forth.'

The visit to the church-yard produces appropriate reflections :

' Wand'ring the church-yard way, methinks there seems
 A stillness in the air, as of a calm,
 An holy calm, when herald angels wing,
 On sacred missions, to this earthly globe.
 How awful is the retrospect, as now
 I mark, amidst the earth-mounds crowded here,
 The graves of those, with whom in early days,
 At twilight time, I've vaulted o'er the tombs,
 Or sought to frighten, from his housing yew,
 The lonely centinel of death's domain,
 That now is hooting ominous and loud.'

It will be seen from these specimens that Mr. Mott, though his pictures are not highly finished, can sketch with accuracy and feeling.

NOVELS.

Art. 21. *Aretas*. By Emma Parker, Author of "Elfrida, Heiress of Belgrave," and "Virginia, or the Peace of Amiens." 12mo. 4 Vols. 11. 4s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1813.

Miss Parker deserves the support of parents and guardians, since her present tale shows the mortifications which may accrue to young persons from following their own fancies in love-affairs, instead of abiding by the counsels of their friends. She will also obtain the approbation of younger readers, for the spirit and vivacity which are displayed in her work. The expedients by which *Aretas* tries to keep up his boyish attachment, after its real fervour has abated, are described

described with much effect; and the concluding chapters are pleasing and lively. Yet, when the scene lies in Sicily, the descriptions are so evidently and avowedly taken from books, that the narrative loses that air of actual observation which prevails when the youthful human character is portrayed. The sketch of *Alexandrina Finlaysgrove* is *ouré*, as are most of the scenes in which this personage appears. In Vol. iv. p. 32. the word *emulate* is erroneously employed instead of *stimulate*; and in the same volume, p. 81., the *hero* is rather strangely described as being seized with an '*hysteric laugh*.' Many substitutions of words also occur, which seem to belong to the class of typographical errors, as '*illusion*' for *delusion*, &c.

Art. 22. *The Miser Married.* By Catherine Hutton. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

We have here certainly a promising first attempt. The dialogues are natural, and each letter is characteristic of its supposed writer. The story also is amusing; though the miser's wife teaches rather a dangerous doctrine (in Vol. iii. p. 145.) when, speaking of her conduct towards her husband, she says, 'I follow the example of the immortal Mr. Pitt; whenever he had done or intended to do any great mischief, he thundered out a greater; and the people, thankful *in*' (*for*) 'escaping the second, received the first as a favour.' We presume that a similar speculation in real life would scarcely prove as successful as it is supposed to have been in this lady's case, and as it certainly was under the management of the skilful statesman in question. The letters of the inferior characters might have been more intelligible and amusing, if every word in them had not been studiously mis-spelt. It is an error (Vol. i. p. 258.) to say, that 'Lady Montgomery is become Lady Winterdale,' since she would be Lady Montgomery still, having married a man without title; and the fair author is rather behind-hand in her information, when she asserts that 'Mrs. Hannah More keeps a lady's boarding-school,' Vol. ii. p. 233.

Art. 23. *Tales of Real Life.* By Mrs. Opie. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

While some authors are satisfied with merely amusing, and others almost affront their readers by the pertinacity of their admonitions, Mrs. Opie appears to take a happy medium; generally proposing to herself to shew the effects of some virtue or the consequences of some error, and seldom losing sight of this object, though she courteously allows her readers to draw their own conclusions from her tales.

In the present publication, the characters of 'Lady Anne and Lady Jane' exhibit the importance, to young females, of uniting pleasing manners with steady principles; and the tale contains some dialogues which are exquisitely natural. The history of 'Austin and his Wife' admirably displays the evils resulting from either undue severity or improper indulgence in education. The composition, however, intitled 'The Mysterious Stranger,' though it awakens interest and conjecture, turns them to less profit than Mrs. Opie's other narratives generally create; since, if the heroine were supposed to
love

love her second husband, her story would be immoral, though perhaps more natural; and, as it now stands, her feelings and conduct are at variance, both being too improbable to afford warning or instruction.

With the exception of this story, the volumes possess the same pathetic eloquence, and accurate developement of human motives and feelings, which must always charm in the writings of this author; and by which she is enabled to make the strangest fictions appear in her narration to be *Tales of Real Life*.

Art. 24. *Alinda, or the Child of Mystery*. By the Author of "Ora and Juliet," "The Castle of Tariffa," &c. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1812.

An ordinary novel, full of improbable incidents and romantic sentiments, yet containing a tolerable representation of a poor Irish domestic, which character is now much in vogue with novel-writers; perhaps from the ample materials for its delineation which have been furnished by Miss Edgeworth.

Art. 25. *The Liberal Critic; or Memoirs of Henry Percy*, conveying a correct Estimate of the Manners and Principles of the present Times. By Thomas Ashe, Esq., Author of "The Spirit of the Book," "Travels in America," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1812.

A self-named *Liberal Critic* here makes a dull story the vehicle for conveying his opinions on religion and politics; and he attacks both the established clergy and sectaries with an intemperance which must prevent us from acquiescing in his assumed title. Some parts of the work are offensive to delicacy, and it is throughout occasionally ungrammatical and vulgar.

EDUCATION.

Art. 26. *An English Vocabulary*; in which the Words are arranged indiscriminately, designed as a Sequel to "The Scholars' Spelling Assistant," for the Purpose of grounding young Persons more effectually in Spelling and Pronunciation: to which are added, Miscellanies on the most useful and interesting Subjects. By Thomas Carpenter, Author of "The Youth's Guide to Business," &c. 12mo. 2s. bound. Longman and Co. 1813.

The *indiscriminate* arrangement of words in this spelling-book can be no recommendation, since children perhaps learn and retain most easily those lessons in which their ear is assisted by similarity of sounds. The letters before each word, denoting the part of speech to which it belongs, may be considered as an improvement; and the explanations will be useful where they are likely to be intelligible, although some of them are better fitted to exercise the memory than to increase the knowledge of the pupil. Thus, '*spurious*' is illustrated by a longer word, and said to mean '*illegitimate*'; '*bust*' is stated to be 'the figure or portrait of a person in *relievo*;' and '*history*' is described as 'a very useful species of instruction, which may properly be called the common school of mankind.' Such definitions are not sufficiently clear for those who have yet the rudiments of arts and sciences to learn.

BOTANY.

Art. 27. *Sketches towards a Hortus Botanicus Americanus; or, Coloured Plates (with a Catalogue and concise and familiar Description of many Species) of new and valuable Plants of the West Indies and North and South America. Also of several others, Natives of Africa and the East Indies: arranged after the Linnæan System. With a concise and comprehensive Glossary of Terms, prefixed, and a General Index. By W. J. Titford, M.D., Corresponding Member of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c.* 4to. Price, neatly bound in red, with Coloured Plates, 3l. 13s. 6d.; Ditto, (if ordered) with Plates not coloured, 2l. 2s.; Ditto, Coloured Plates and Explanation only, 2l. 12s. 6d.; Ditto, plain Plates and Explanation only, 1l. 6s. 3d.; Ditto, Letter-press, without Plates, 1l. 1s. Sherwood and Co.

We have already offered our unbiassed sentiments on the merits of the first two Numbers of this shewy but superficial publication; and its present completion has not enabled us to form a more favourable estimate of its utility or importance. At the same time, we sincerely regret to learn that 'a great number of subscribers being in New York and Philadelphia, as well as in the West Indies, the present circumstances relative to those countries have produced severe disappointment, and rendered the publication of the last number extremely hazardous and expensive.' Let this intimation suspend the farther infliction of criticism, and weigh with the humane and opulent to make the author's sheets lie lighter on his breast!

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Rev. Dr. Goddard, occasioned by his Sermon, preached August 8. 1811, at the triennial Visitation of the Lord Bishop of Chichester. By a Layman.* Cr. 8vo. Pamphlet. Longman and Co.

The author of this letter, who styles himself a *Layman*, and dates from Chichester, adds to his knowledge of theology a perfect acquaintance with the principles of religious liberty; and, though he approaches Dr. G. with respect, he aims some well-directed strictures at his visitation-sermon. The preacher's definition of heresy is controverted, as well as his account of the utility of establishments in producing uniformity of opinion.

'Since its restoration, (observes the Layman,) the church has been propped by a few penal and restraining statutes, and as, with only a trifling exception or two, we have been happily free from civil broils, our religious contention has been only a war of words; but of this, both within the pale of the church and out of it, there has been enough to shew the insufficiency of articles, creeds, and forms, to "ensure unanimity," and give peace to the inquisitive and restless mind of man. Indeed that quiet which established formularies are intended to produce resembles nothing so much as the sleep of death.'

It was admitted by Dr. G., and he is often reminded of the admission, that "from the constitution of the human mind, &c. an entire agree-

agreement of opinion can hardly be expected on any subject ;" and, if this point be allowed, are we to wonder that means adopted by public authority to secure *perfect unanimity* have been inadequate to their avowed object. Dr. G. contends for "*uniting and identifying the interests of the church with those of the state*, that obedience to the law might rest on religious obligation, and the sound principles of religion be maintained through the sanction of the law." On this passage, the Layman offers the following pointed animadversions :

' I can readily conceive that obedience to the law may rest on the sure foundation of religious obligation, for I know that submission to civil governors is enjoined by an apostle, and even by the Saviour of the world : but is this submission general ? Does it extend to all cases, spiritual as well as temporal ? If these questions are answered in the affirmative, the conduct of the apostles and first preachers of Christianity, as well as that of the Protestant martyrs in this country and every where else must be condemned ! If in the negative, the jurisdiction of the magistrate in spiritual concerns, and in whatever relates to religious doctrine and worship, is denied. From this dilemma there is no escape. Now according to the laws of the realm, the sovereign has the most absolute jurisdiction over the church of England. You truly affirm [p. 21.] that he is constituted "in all causes and over all persons ecclesiastical, — Supreme." You say, indeed, "for our doctrines and sacraments we look only to the Gospel ; we should maintain and celebrate them, independently of human authority." But who are *we* ? you personally, and many other conscientious clergymen might do so ; but in that case you would be no longer *members of the Church of England*, you would be *Dissenters*. Situated as you are at present, your whole ritual, all your ordinances and articles, are part of the law of the land. The ecclesiastical corps through all its ranks is as much subjected to this law as the army is to the annual mutiny bill. I am almost ashamed to repeat what has been so frequently said relative to the beginning and completion of our present ecclesiastical establishment, viz. that it was from first to last the work of the civil power.'

The Layman is disposed to be rather sarcastic on the preacher for assigning "the evil" of diversity of religious opinions to the *free toleration* of them : but he evidently restrains his pen. While he protests against some of the doctrines of the sermon, he avows himself a well-wisher to the Establishment. He does not, however, display his zeal, in the usual way, by high-flown and unqualified praise ; yet why will he endeavour to irritate by remarking that 'the sacerdotal character resembles the regal in mistaking flattery for friendship, and in receiving wholesome counsel either with neglect or scorn ? We believe that many clergymen may be found, who are by no means offended by the calm and temperate objections of Dissenters to the established system, and would be very desirous of a prudent reform ; and many, we know, are of opinion that the permanency of the Establishment would in this way be most effectually secured ; though others set their faces against all innovation. The Layman sides with those who think that the edifice would be best
sup-

supported by a repair. 'I devoutly wish,' says he, 'the prosperity of my country, and the permanency of its ecclesiastical establishment,—indeed *not just as it now stands*, for that would be wishing an impossibility; but I wish the fabric to be so cleared, repaired, and fortified, as that it may bid defiance to all the assaults of its enemies.'

Notwithstanding this declaration, it is very probable that Dr. G. will regard the Layman as possessing more of the qualities of a Dissenter than those of a true Churchman.

Art. 29. *Observations on select Places of the Old Testament*, founded on a Perusal of Parsons's Travels from Aleppo to Bagdad. By W. Vansittart, A.M., Vicar of White Waltham, Berks. 8vo. pp. 119. Rivingtons. 1812.

Society and manners, agriculture and the arts, have remained for so many centuries stationary in the East, that the traveller who now explores that extensive region reads a book of man very similar to that which it presented to the tourist thousands of years ago. The reports made by Moses and Herodotus are confirmed by existing facts; and hence Harmer, with others who have adopted his useful plan, and have made selections from modern voyages and travels, have greatly illustrated as well as confirmed the truth of the sacred Scriptures. Mr. Vansittart, following this track, has been induced by a perusal of the travels of Irwin and Parsons* to offer some observations on a few passages of the Old Testament. His learning and acumen are considerable, and we concur with him in most though not in all of his remarks: but, as his mode of elucidation is not new, and as a very critical notice of his work would carry us to a greater length than would be convenient, we must be brief in our report.

Mr. V. begins with an extract from Mr. Parsons, who tells us that "in the evening one of the Arabs of the caravan, on his return from grazing his camels, brought with him *fifteen ostrich's eggs*, which were warm from the nest." On this circumstance, Mr. V. comments at considerable length, for the purpose of correcting some misapprehensions which have been generally entertained respecting the incubation of the ostrich, and then presents us with a new translation of Job, xxxix. 13—18. which agrees more exactly with the natural history of that bird than the common version. Sufficient evidence is adduced from Vaillant, Barrow, and other travellers, to prove that the eggs of the ostrich are not left in the sand to be hatched by the heat of the sun: but that, as several mother-birds lay their eggs in one nest, they alternately sit on them, and that even the male birds take their turn in this office. By this fact, Mr. V. accounts for the number of eggs which are often found in one nest, and is also led to offer a new explanation of the terms which are employed to describe this singular bird in the book of Job. We cannot follow him through his minute examination of the meaning of Hebrew words: but we may offer the result of his critique by the insertion of his new rendering of the passage mentioned above:

* M. R. Vol. lxiii. p. 401.; and Vol. lxi. N. S. p. 286.

- ' 13. The wing of the ostrich is to be desired.
Is it as the wing and plumage of the stork?
- ' 14. Which committeth her eggs to the ground,
And warmeth them on the dust;
- ' 15. And forgetteth that the foot may crush her,
Or that the wild beast may tear her in pieces.
- ' 16. She hath hardened her young for that which is not hers:
Her labour is in vain without discrimination.
- ' 17. Because God hath made her weak in wisdom,
And hath not allotted to her a full share in understanding.
- ' 18. At what time she lifteth up herself on high,
She scorneth the horse and his rider.'

At p. 34. a palpable error occurs. We should read, "*within* the torrid zone the ostriches frequently leave their eggs to be hatched by the heat of the sun, but *without* the tropics they incubate in the manner of other birds." As the quotation is given by Mr. V., the *without* and the *within* occupy the place of each other.

Mr. Parsons having visited the remains of a singular building called Nimrod's tower, constructed of unburnt bricks with layers of reeds placed at the distance of about four feet from each other, Mr. V. takes occasion to enter on an inquiry relative to the city and tower of Babel; and by not attending to a circumstance, very apparent in the Mosaic account of the antient world, viz. that the names which places afterward acquired are often substituted for their original names, he is surprized that the great city which Nimrod built is called Babel, Gen. x. 10. ; before that remarkable confusion occurred which in Gen. xi. 9. is said to have given to it that name. Hence, in the last-mentioned passage, Mr. V. objects to our translating *לְבָבִי* *therefore*: but clearly without adequate reason: for *Babel* signifies *confusion*, and the place where God did *confound* the language of the earth was *therefore*, or *from this circumstance*, called *Babel*.

We have also a dissertation on the word *קֶדָם* *Kedam*: but it is not very satisfactory.

Another extract from Mr. Parsons introduces an account of the boats of the Tigris; which, though not exactly similar to those that are described by Herodotus, so nearly resemble them as to confirm the accuracy of his relation. Mention is also made of baskets, the twigs or reeds of which were so closely woven as to be capable of containing milk or any other fluid; and, since wine must have been brought to Babylon from a distance, it is conjectured that the casks or vessels which contained it were made of the leaves of the palm tree.

The hydraulic machines constructed on the Euphrates, for the purposes of irrigation, are described at some length; as well as the Egyptian method of raising and distributing the water of the Nile. Mr. V. also takes notice of the accounts given by Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus of the ease with which it is said that Egypt was made fertile, compared with the agricultural labour of other countries; and here he adverts to the narrative of the sacred historian, Deut. xi. 10, 11, 12., who represents the land which the Israelites were going to possess as superior to far-famed Egypt. It is supposed that Herodotus and Diodorus did not take into consideration the expence and labour

labour attendant on canals, dikes, and reservoirs of water that would be necessary for the cultivation of corn, when they mentioned the easy manner in which the Egyptian agriculturists obtained a crop, but adverted merely to the little trouble which they had in preparing and sowing the ground. Moses, however, was well aware of the toil which attended Egyptian husbandry; and so were the Israelites, who must in course prefer a country watered "by the early and latter rains," to that which required the arduous process of artificial irrigation.

The movement of an Arab horde is described by Mr. Parsons; and his present annotator supposes that this description will afford a tolerably correct idea of Abraham's journeying out of the land of the Chaldees into Canaan.

Jeremiah, viii. 7. is illustrated by a quotation from Parsons, relative to the regularity of the Stork in its migration.

In conclusion, for the purpose of explaining what Mr. V. calls 'a very difficult word,' in the lamentation of David over Saul and Jonathan, 2 Sam. i. 17, 18., a passage is inserted from Irwin's *Travels*; but, if the hint here offered, on the name of the funeral dirge being *the Bow*, be new, that on the substitution of '*Hart* (Geddes translates it *Antelope*) of Israel,' for "the beauty of Israel," is not so, but has already been noticed in our Journal. See M. R. Vol. lxi. N. S. p. 163.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *Proposals, with the Measures and Plan detailed, for rectifying public Affairs with private Grievances*, and instituting the happy and divine Order of Things, intended for Mankind: or the practical System of political, individual, and commercial Interests, whereby the Greatness and Felicity of the British Empire may be consummated at present, and permanently secured. By George Edwards, Esq., M.D., Author of the "Income or Property Tax." 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1033. 1l. 1s. Boards. Ridgway.

We have frequently had occasion to meet with a performance by Dr. Edwards, and have always found his schemes too sublime for our comprehension. Whether the want of improvement be on our side or his, we must still repeat a similar acknowledgement. He is fond of grand promises, and speaks of suggesting a project which would make even a second-rate minister a more successful governor of the country than a Pitt or a Fox: but the misfortune is that these fine projects are couched in language which nobody can understand. We are incessantly told of the 'high and happy order of things,' 'the imperial art of human welfare,' 'the organized operative device,' 'the fourth divine dispensation,' and other matters of equally imposing sound, but without being so fortunate as to meet any thing in the shape of definite explanation.

Dr. Edwards addresses his reasoning to certain 'high, respectable, and illustrious characters;' whom, on farther inquiry, we find to be the 'royal family, the different corporate establishments, the various societies,' and, to crown the whole, the 'inhabitants of the country at large.' The succeeding extract is a kind of apostrophe to this mixed assemblage of personages, and is subjoined to a chapter which is appropriated

propriated to the improvement of our country,—or, to use his own words, ‘the royal regeneration of Britain.’

‘I now trust, ye high, respectable, and illustrious characters! whom I have the honour of addressing in this letter, that you will yourselves supply the omissions in it, which are altogether unavoidable, considering the innumerable subjects of uncommon magnitude it comprises: and be convinced that all the views and objects of manual industry can be brought to perfection by means of the high and happy order of things. From the perusal of this letter you may, therefore, infer, that due splendour and embellishment will follow the progress of the order through the kingdom; that, by the vast increase of employment, and other means, taking place in the manner now proposed, population will be rapidly augmented, and the productions of the country of every kind, infinitely multiplied; and that, through the strength and wealth which will hence result, and a wise policy combined herewith, the empire may be aggrandized and perpetuated in the manner described under the definition of manual industry, and enjoy abundance of every kind with all the comforts and conveniencies of life. For at the same time all its own productions, and those of other countries, will become genuine and unadulterated; although he who now addresses you cannot use a little malt liquor, but he must lay down his pen for the evening, on account of the distraction, reveries, and absence of mind, which its narcotic ingredients produce; and the population of the kingdom is too generally obliged to drink spirituous liquors almost as injurious and fatal to the constitution as the island of Walcheren itself.’

Our readers, we believe, will excuse us from farther discussion with Dr. Edwards. To offer an analysis of a book, or even of the contents of a book, would be absurd in a case in which the author has evidently no clear conception of his own meaning. Occasionally, we have met with passages, such as his remarks on commerce, (Vol. ii. p. 16.) his delineation of the characters of Pitt and Fox, &c., in which rather a larger share of common sense appears than in the rest of the work: but nowhere have we been able to turn over three pages in succession, without meeting with palpable absurdities. We belong to the number of those who conceive that there is ample room to amend our public institutions; and that, on the arrival of a season of peace and tranquillity, a greater portion of good may be obtained in this way than the public, or, to speak more properly, the merely practical part of the public, are inclined to believe: but Dr. Edwards, we confess, is not the man to promote such a cause. The extravagance of his language, and the wildness of his speculations, indeed, are calculated to make people suspect that no good whatever can be done by theory. The true way of preparing the public mind for the reception of improvement is to give the facts first and the reasoning afterward. Such a course would tend to exempt speculative writing from the charge, almost universally brought against it, of being nothing better than a vehicle of visionary schemes; and, by fixing the attention on striking examples of good that has been actually accomplished, it would afford stronger motives to imitation than volume after volume of general reasoning.

Art. 31. *An useful Compendium of many important and curious Branches of Science and general Knowledge, digested, principally, in plain and instructive Tables; to which are added, some rational Recreations in Numbers, with easy and expeditious Methods of constructing Magic Squares, and Specimens of some in the higher Class.* By the Reverend Thomas Watson. 8vo. pp. 129. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

We are not always warranted in ratifying the commendatory epithets which authors are too much inclined to apply, in their title-pages, to their own performances: but we must allow that this is 'an useful compendium' or collection of the principal facts in astronomy, chronology, geography, sacred history, antient profane history, modern history, and various other subjects. It cannot claim the merit of much originality, but, as a treatise of reference, it may be consulted with advantage by those to whom its contents are new, or whose memories require to be refreshed. It consists of eight short chapters, the last of which is occupied with rational exercises and amusements, and concludes with the construction of magic squares.

At page 14. Mr. Watson has stated a rule for finding the dominical letter, that is applicable to the 19th century only: but in page x. of the preface, he gives the following one for finding that letter for any year of any century:

'Divide the century by 4, and twice what remains take from 6: and to this remainder add the odd years of the century and their 4th part, which dividing by 7, and taking what is left from 7, the remainder is the index of the dominical letter.'

Mr. W. has also inserted a rule for reducing, without any table, the Roman reckoning to the common, and *vice versa*, which we apprehend is new. We think, however, that in page 53. his statement is erroneous respecting the relative lengths of some of the most noted rivers of our globe compared with that of the Thames, particularly in the case of the Mississippi; and we observe a mistake, or inconsistency, in page 91., which it may not be improper to point out. Mr. W. first says that 100 aunes of Sweden, each 2 feet, are equal to 75 English yards; and shortly afterward he states 100 feet of Sweden to be equal to 97.4 English feet. Now 75 English yards are equal to 225 English feet: wherefore, if 100 Swedish aunes or ells of 2 feet each be equal to 75 English yards, 100 Swedish feet must be equal to 112.5 instead of 97.4 English feet. We apprehend that the number 75 was inserted instead of 65 English yards; which, multiplied by 3 and divided by 2, give 97.5 exactly. It is moreover an error, page 46., to state the Danish mile as equal to the Swedish.

We spoke in terms of deserved commendation of two theological publications by Mr. Watson, in our Numbers for December 1807, and August 1811.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 32. *The Pattern of Social Prayer, given by Jesus to his Disciples.* Preached June 9th 1812 at Worship-street, before the Annual Assembly of General Baptists; with an Appendix, containing

taining Remarks on the State of the English Presbyterians. By James Gilchrist. 8vo. 1s. Cradock and Joy.

The observations here offered on the Lord's prayer, considered as a whole and as forming a model for social devotion, are very judicious, and merit the particular notice of those who are in the habit of using extemporary prayer.

'The prayer,' says Mr. G., 'which Christ taught his disciples is rational, sober, temperate. It contains no romantic wish, extravagant expression, or vehement interjection: nothing to cause uncommon attitude, violent gesticulation, or strange distortion; nothing to strain the voice or ferment the passions; nothing that would assimilate the house of prayer to the noisy confusion of a heathen temple, or Christian worshippers to the frantic devotees of a senseless idolatry. It contains neither flame nor smoke, but the steady glow of animated piety, united to the clear light of "truth and soberness." It is the language of a man in possession of himself, with perfect controul over all his faculties, who, when he goes to worship, leaves not reason, sense, and propriety behind; who can be rational, yet pious; who can "serve God without distraction," yet "worship him in spirit and in truth."'

In the Appendix, Mr. G. undertakes to account for the decline of the English Presbyterians, or rational Dissenters, as they have also been called; and we are inclined to think that, to use a vulgar expression, he has *hit the right nail on the head*. He attributes it in some degree to the monotonous reading of sermons: but chiefly to the timid concealment of preachers, who, like the person mentioned by Mr. Belsham in his *Memoirs of Lindsey*, (p. 117.) deliver sermons for a course of years to their congregation without openly and ingenuously disclosing their doctrinal sentiments.*

'The rational dissenting interest has suffered, (says Mr. G.) not from Unitarian sentiment, but from the suppression of it. Congregations, once flourishing, have "perished for lack of knowledge." They were not poisoned, but starved. Youth, who are always the hope of coming years, have grown up ignorant of the nature of doctrines, and consequently indifferent to them. Being bound to the temple of their fathers by no stronger tie than custom, they have deserted it, and seen with unconcern its very walls moulder into ruins.'

That class of Dissenters, against whom Mr. G. points his strictures, will find in his short and spirited appendix much matter for reflection; and perhaps rational Dissenters will perceive that their decline has been chiefly owing to their own irrational conduct. 'Doctrine,' as Mr. G. remarks, 'is the great instrument of increase;' and had their preachers been as boldly doctrinal as the Methodists, they would not in all probability have been so completely supplanted by them.

* Mr. Belsham's words are, "A late minister, well remembered by many, made his boast, that though he had officiated twenty years in the same chapel, he defied any of his hearers to know what he believed concerning the person of Christ." What matter for boasting! On the brow of this minister, to use the words of Shakspeare, "shame was ashamed to sit."

Art.

Art. 33. *The Sufferings of Unitarians, in former Times, urged as a Ground of Thankfulness for their recovered Liberties.* Preached at Essex-street Chapel, July 25th, 1813, being the first Sunday after "The Act to relieve Persons who impugn the Doctrine of the Trinity" had received the Royal Assent. By Thomas Belsham, Minister of the Chapel. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson and Co.

It is one of the best features of the present age, that persecution for matters of religious opinion is grown unfashionable and unpopular; and that the eyes of men in general are open to its extreme folly, as well as to its horrible cruelty. To the honour of the reign of George the Third, the cause of religious liberty has been rapidly advanced in that period; and the occasion of the present discourse is an additional proof of its tolerant character. Unitarians are now placed under the shield of the laws, and the penalties to which they were formerly liable are repealed. Elated by this circumstance, Mr. Belsham takes the first opportunity of commenting on it; declaring that, though he had officiated as a Christian minister upwards of forty years, he then for the first time stood up in that capacity under the sanction of the laws. To excite the gratitude of his brethren for this legal improvement in their situation, he offers an affecting history of the sufferings of Unitarians in former times; and, while he praises God for this new order of things, he does not forget to express his thankfulness to the *government*, and even to the *Bench of Bishops*, for the handsome support given by them to the bill in favour of Unitarians.—The discourse is with propriety dedicated to William Smith, Esq., M.P., by whose efforts the Unitarian faith was placed under the protection of the laws.

CORRESPONDENCE.

R. S., and *A Constant Reader*, have each reminded us of an oversight in our account of Mr. Belsham's *Memoirs of Mr. Lindsey*, Rev. for October, p. 130., *note*: where, in hastily transcribing from the book, the name of Dr. Doddridge caught our eye instead of that of Mr. Orton; to whom the passage copied in the note belongs. Dr. Doddridge died above twenty years before the event occurred to which the observation relates.

The anonymous communication relative to *the Lady of Martendyke* is inadmissible: no such offerings being ever accepted by us.

Mr. Juigné will certainly not be forgotten; but we have too many demands on us to be able to promise him the very early attention of which he is desirous.

A. B. C. is informed that the work mentioned by him is 'intended for notice,' when its turn arrives.

We do not understand X. Z., though we recognize the handwriting of an *old Friend*. Perhaps he only meant to *amuse* us, which would be very agreeable if we had time to throw away.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1813.

ART. I. *Travels in the Interior of Brazil*, particularly in the Gold and Diamond Districts of that Country, by Authority of the Prince Regent of Portugal; including a Voyage to the Rio de la Plata, and an historical Sketch of the Revolution of Buenos Ayres. Illustrated with Engravings. By John Mawe, Author of "The Mineralogy of Derbyshire." 4to. pp. 366. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

ALMOST all narratives of travels are interesting, either as conveying amusement to the general reader, or as affording instruction to the man of science and the philosopher. In course, their interest will vary with the novelty or the importance of the district described, and with the intelligence and the enterprize of the traveller: but temporary circumstances often confer additional zest on the pursuit after information respecting particular regions. The country of Brazil may be said to possess at present a share of this contingent importance, in aid of its own natural recommendations as an object of curiosity, and of the consideration that the knowledge which we have hitherto gained of its interior is very imperfect. We are glad, therefore, to announce the volume before us, which in some respects prefers but modest claims to distinction, but which in others may be said to have sterling merit. It is the production of a traveller who neither lays claim to learning nor boasts of intimacy with the great, but who went abroad for objects of personal utility, and gives the result of his observations in plain and unadorned language.—In the year 1804, Mr. Mawe sailed from Spain to the Rio de la Plata, on a commercial speculation: but his ship and cargo were seized at Monte Video, in consequence partly of that antipathy which our recent capture of the Spanish frigates had excited against the name of Englishmen, and partly through the treachery of certain individuals who were interested in the confiscation. He was restored to liberty on the taking of Monte Video by Sir Samuel Auchmuty; and, some time afterward, he was enabled to proceed to Brazil with an introduction to the Portuguese ministry from the Portuguese ambassador in London. This introduction intimated that Mr.

Mawe was attached to mineralogical pursuits, and was desirous of exploring the ample field for investigation which was afforded by the interior of Brazil. He delivered his letters of credence at a moment in which an Englishman could scarcely fail to obtain any reasonable request; viz. on the arrival of the court of Portugal in their western capital, under the protection of a British squadron. Mr. M. had accordingly the satisfaction of receiving recommendations to the public functionaries in the inland-stations, with an order for escorts through those districts in which they were necessary. He was thus the first Englishman, perhaps the first foreigner, who visited the interior of Brazil with the sanction of government.

The course of Mr. Mawe's peregrinations would have been rendered considerably clearer by a map on a larger scale than that which he has given; and this defect is the more to be regretted from our unacquaintance with the inland-geography of Brazil. To afford our readers an idea of the direction of the author's inland-expeditions, it may be well to fix the attention on the situation of Rio de Janeiro in lat. $22^{\circ} 54''$, and to divide his travelling into three journeys; one, above one hundred miles N. E. of Rio, to a place called Canto Gallo; another, more than twice the distance, W. by N. of Rio, to the town of St. Paul's; and a third, considerably longer still, in a direction almost due north, through the country of the gold and diamond mines. These journeys are exclusive of his travels on the Spanish territory from Monte Video to Buenos Ayres; a tract of country which is already familiar to most general readers. We shall therefore pass over that part of the book which relates to it, as well as the description of the town of Rio de Janeiro, and direct our observations chiefly to the interior of Brazil. — To begin with the manners of the Brazilians. — One of the first towns visited by Mr. Mawe was St. Paul's, an inland-place situated above two hundred miles westward of Rio de Janeiro. This being comparatively an old settlement, the inhabitants consider themselves as not a little superior to their fellow-subjects of the neighbouring towns.

‘ Our appearance at St. Paul's excited considerable curiosity among all descriptions of people, who seemed by their manner never to have seen Englishmen before. — Many of the good citizens invited us to their houses, and sent for their friends to come and look at us. — It was gratifying to us to perceive that this general wonder subsided into a more social feeling; we met with civil treatment every where, and were frequently invited to dine with the inhabitants. At the public parties and balls of the governor we found both novelty and pleasure; novelty at being much more liberally received than we were in the Spanish settlements, and pleasure at being in much more refined and polished company.

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'The dress of the ladies abroad, and especially at church, consists of a garment of black silk, with a long veil of the same material, trimmed with broad lace; in the cooler season, black cassimere or baize. — At table they are extremely abstemious; their favourite amusement is dancing, in which they display much vivacity and grace. At balls and other public festivals they generally appear in elegant white dresses, with a profusion of gold chains about their necks, their hair tastefully disposed and fastened with combs. Their conversation, at all times sprightly, seems to derive additional life from music. Indeed the whole range of their education appears to be confined to superficial accomplishments; they trouble themselves very little with domestic concerns, confiding whatever relates to the inferior departments of the household to the negro or negra cook, and leaving all other matters to the management of servants. Owing to this indifference, they are total strangers to the advantages of that order, neatness, and propriety, which reign in an English family; their time at home is mostly occupied in sewing, embroidery, and lace-making. Another circumstance repugnant to delicacy is, that they have no mantua-makers of their own sex; all articles of female dress here are made by tailors. An almost universal debility prevails among them, which is partly attributable to their abstemious living, but chiefly to want of exercise, and to the frequent warm-bathings in which they indulge. They are extremely attentive to every means of improving the delicacy of their persons, perhaps to the injury of their health.

'The men in general, especially those of the higher rank, officers, and others, dress superbly; in company they are very polite and attentive, and shew every disposition to oblige; they are great talkers and prone to conviviality. The lower ranks, compared with those of other colonial towns, are in a very advanced state of civilization.' —

'We found very little difficulty in accommodating ourselves to the general mode of living at St. Paul's. The bread is pretty good, and the butter tolerable, but rarely used except with coffee for breakfast, or tea in the evening. A more common breakfast is a very pleasant sort of beans, called feijones, boiled or mixed with mandioca. Dinner, which is usually served up at noon or before, commonly consists of a quantity of greens boiled with a little fat pork or beef, a root of the potatoe kind, and a stewed fowl, with excellent sallad, to which succeeds a great variety of delicious conserves and sweet-meats. Very little wine is taken at meals; the usual beverage is water. —

'I may here observe, that neither in St. Paul's nor in any other place which I visited, did I witness any instance of that levity in the females of Brazil, which some writers alledge to be the leading trait in their character.'

This detail is the more deserving of attention because it is, in a great measure, applicable to the state of society in the larger city of Rio de Janeiro. The Portuguese are in general reserved in admitting a foreigner to their family-parties: but, when he

is once received, they treat him with great openness and hospitality. Education is at almost as low an ebb in the capital as in St. Paul's: but several attempts at improvement have recently been made by the Prince Regent, of whom Mr. Mawe is disposed to speak in terms of great personal eulogy, while he admits that at his court most things are managed by intrigue.—With regard to agriculture, we can scarcely conceive a country in a more backward state. The Prince Regent's farm, as it is called, is of the size of one of our average-counties, and cultivated by fifteen hundred negroes, who are half starved in the midst of the richest resources. The land under culture is covered with weeds, and the coffee-plantations are filled with wild shrubs like a coppice-wood. Such is the general condition of Portuguese-Brazil, with partial exceptions in the neighbourhood of large towns. No soil can be more favourable to the growth of maize, beans, pease, and every species of pulse. Poultry are abundant and low-priced; and the cattle, notwithstanding continued neglect, are tolerably good, and sell on an average at 30s. each. The horses are very fine: but it is the custom of the country to prefer mules as beasts of burden. Goats of a large breed are sometimes found: but sheep are totally neglected, and mutton is rarely eaten. The diet of the inland-settlers deserves to be mentioned: it consists generally of kidney-beans boiled and mixed with the flour of maize, for breakfast; for dinner, the same, boiled with pork; and for supper, boiled vegetables. Stewed fowls form likewise a variety at dinner; and fruits, particularly bananas and oranges, are used in great abundance.

‘The half-civilized Aborigines reside in the woods, in a most miserable condition; their dwellings, some of which I saw, are formed of boughs of trees, bent so as to hold a thatch or tiling of palm-leaves; their beds are made of dry grass. Having little idea of planting or tillage, they depend for subsistence almost entirely on their bows and arrows, and on the roots and wild fruits which they casually find in the woods. A chief brought about fifty of these Indians to pay me a visit. The dress of the men consisted of a waistcoat and a pair of drawers; that of the women, of a chemise and petticoat, with a handkerchief tied round the head, after the fashion of the Portuguese females. They bore the general characteristics of their race, the copper-coloured skin, short and round visage, broad nose, lank black hair, and regular stature, inclining to the short and broad-set. Being desirous to see a proof of their skill and precision in shooting, of which I had heard much, I placed an orange at thirty yards distance, which was pierced by an arrow from every one who drew his bow at it. I next pointed out a banana-tree, about eight inches in circumference, at a distance of forty yards; not a single arrow missed its aim, though they all shot at an elevated range. Interested by these proofs of their archery, I went with some of them into a wood to see them shoot at birds; though there were

very few, they discovered them far more quickly than I could; and, cautiously creeping along until they were within bow-shot, never failed to bring down their game. The stillness and expedition with which they penetrated the thickets, and passed through the brush-wood, were truly surprising. — Their bows are made of the tough fibrous wood of the Iri, six or seven feet long, and very stout; their arrows are full six feet long, and near an inch in diameter, pointed with a piece of cane cut to a feather edge, or with a bone, but of late more frequently with iron. They are loathsome in their persons, and in their habits but one remove from the anthropophagi; for they will devour almost any animal in the coarsest manner, for instance, a bird unplucked, half-roasted, with the entrails remaining. Ere they departed, I saw an instance of that dangerous excess to which the passions of savages are liable when once excited; for, on presenting a few bottles of liquor, there was a general strife for them, and the person, man or woman, who first obtained one, would have drank the whole of its contents, had it not been forcibly taken away. It is very unsafe to give them ardent spirits, for when intoxicated it is necessary to confine them. If preference is given to one, the rest are insolent and unruly until they obtain the same marks of favour. They are not of a shy or morose character, but have a great aversion to labour, and cannot be brought to submit to any regular employment. Rarely is an Indian to be found serving as a domestic, or working for hire, and to this circumstance may be ascribed the low state of agriculture in the district; for as the farmers, when they begin the world, have seldom funds sufficient to purchase negroes at Rio, their operations are for a long time very confined, and frequently languish for want of hands.'

The mode of travelling in this country is nearly on a level with the manners of its inhabitants. Beds are an indispensable part of a traveller's equipage, and candles are scarcely less requisite unless he be prepared to sit down contented with the cheerless gloom of a solitary lamp. As to snuffers, they are seldom seen, except as a curiosity. What else can be expected in a country which is cultivated only in small and distant spots? Here are no inclosures, no artificial grasses, no provision of fodder against the season of scarcity. The want of suitable buildings makes the settler frequently throw into promiscuous heaps products of a totally different nature: cotton, coffee, maize, and beans, being frequently piled under the same shed. Their dairies, if such they may be called, are managed in a very slovenly manner; the little butter which they make becoming rancid in a few days. Pigs, which form the principal animal food of the inhabitants, are nourished on Indian corn in a crude state. Of this grain the average return is not less than two hundred for one, and it ripens in the course of four or five months. The *mandioca* is seldom ready to take up in less than eighteen or twenty months; by which time it produces,

duces, on a suitable soil, from six to twelve pounds weight per plant. To make it serve as a substitute for bread, little preparation is required, as it will keep a long time, and affords rich nourishment.

Abundant as are the gifts of nature in this favoured soil and climate, a striking contrast is afforded, at almost every step, by the state of artificial accommodations. The farm-houses are miserable hovels, of a single story in height; the floor is neither paved nor boarded; and the walls and partitions are formed of wicker-work, plaistered with mud. The kitchen is generally a dirty apartment, having, on one side, pools of slop-water, and, on the other, fire-places rudely formed by three round stones put together in such a way as to hold the earthen pots used for boiling meat. Where they have no chimney, which is often the case, the smoke can find an issue only through the doors and other apertures. He who travels through Brazil must therefore be contented to look for his chief gratification from external objects.

From a region thus newly settled and thinly peopled, our countrymen, had they been well informed, would not have expected an extensive consumption of British manufactures. Yet, after the emigration of the royal family from Lisbon, our merchants poured in cargo on cargo, as if the market of Brazil knew no limits. Never was the exaggerated estimate, which we are apt to form of distant objects, more surprisingly exemplified. The civilized population of Brazil, which is fitted to use and able to pay for European goods, may amount to half a million, and the warehouses of Rio de Janeiro are adapted to the limited supply which they require: but our vessels succeeded each other with a rapidity which surpassed the means of accommodation both in the town and the custom-house, and made it necessary to pile our goods along the beach. Prices fell forthwith one hundred per cent.; and the deceitful practice of selling goods, apparently damaged, on the account of the insurer, was often adopted. This fraud, so much dreaded at Lloyd's, and so little comprehended by persons out of business, becomes practicable to a great extent in a town which possesses few respectable merchants. The insurer being, by the terms of his contract, bound to make good all loss arising from damage, a fraudulent merchant can often, in the case of an unfavourable market, ascribe to damage the diminished price which was in fact produced by a very different cause. The safety of the under-writer consists chiefly in the respectability of the gentlemen who are called to examine the ostensible damage; and hence the disadvantage under which he labours in a country that is not likely to afford witnesses of undoubted character.

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The immense loss on our shipments to Brazil arose from a double cause; the ridiculous excess of quantity, and the still more ridiculous unfitness of many of the articles for the intended market:

‘ One speculator, of wonderful foresight, sent large invoices of *stays* for ladies who never heard of such armour; another sent *skates*, for the use of a people who are totally uninformed that water can become ice; a third sent out a considerable assortment of the most elegant coffin-furniture, not knowing that coffins are never used by the Brazilians, or in the Plata. To these absurd speculations may be added numerous others, particularly in articles of taste: elegant services of cut glass were little appreciated by men accustomed to drink out of a horn or a cocoa-nut-shell; and brilliant chandeliers were still less valued in a country where only lamps that afforded a gloomy light were used. Superfine woollen cloths were equally ill-suited to the market; no one thought them sufficiently strong. An immense quantity of high-priced saddles, and thousands of whips, were sent out to a people as incapable of adopting them as they were of knowing their convenience. They were astonished to see Englishmen ride on such saddles; nor could they imagine any thing more insecure. Of the bridles scarcely any use could be made, as the bit was not calculated to keep the horse or mule in subordination: these articles were of course sacrificed. Great quantities of the nails and ironmongery were useless, as they were not calculated for the general purposes of the people. Large cargoes of Manchester goods were sent; and, in a few months, more arrived than had been consumed in the course of twenty years preceding. No discrimination was used in the assortment of these articles, with respect either to quality or fineness, so that common prints were disposed of at less than a shilling a yard, and frequently in barter. Fish from Newfoundland met with a similar fate; also porter, large quantities of which, in barrels, arrived among a people, of whom a few only had tasted that article as a luxury. How the shippers in London, and other British ports, could imagine that porter would at once become a general beverage, it is difficult to conceive, especially when sent in barrels. These cargoes, being unsaleable, were of course warehoused, and of course spoiled. — Many invoices of fancy goods, and such as do not constitute a staple trade, were sold at from sixty to seventy per cent. under costs and charges, and others were totally lost. — What must have been the delusions of those traders who sent out tools, formed with a hatchet on one side and a hammer on the other, for the convenience of breaking the rocks, and cutting the precious metals from them, as if they imagined that a man had only to go into the mountains, and cut as much gold as would pay for the articles he wanted!’

This evil led to another of equal magnitude; a ruinous loss by the Brazil produce received in barter. The young men, who were sent out in such numbers from England as supercargoes, found themselves placed in a new sphere, and were obliged to take goods in return, of the quality of which they were

unfitted to judge. Hides and Brazil-wood are principal articles of export from this part of the world : but, with regard to hides, the English purchaser was ill qualified to discern the injury received in the drying ; and as to wood, he learned, when too late, that the kind growing around Rio de Janeiro is greatly inferior to that of Pernambuco, on which the favourable character of Brazil-wood has been founded. Other objects of speculation proved still more unfavourable :

‘ Precious stones appeared to offer the most abundant source of riches ; the general calculation was made upon the price at which they sold in London : but every trader bought them, more or less, at the price at which they were offered ; invoices of goods were bartered for some, which in London would sell for, comparatively, a trifle, as they were taken without discrimination as to quality or perfection ; tourmalines were sold for emeralds, crystals for topazes, and both common stones and vitreous paste have been bought as diamonds to a considerable amount. Both gold and diamonds were well known to be produced in Brazil ; and their being by law contraband, was a sufficient temptation to eager speculators who had never before seen either in their native state. False diamonds were weighed with scrupulousness, and bought with avidity, to sell by the rules stated by Jefferies. Gold-dust, as it is commonly called, appeared in no inconsiderable quantity, and, after being weighed with equal exactness, was bought or bartered for. But previous to this many samples underwent the following easy and ingenious process :—The brass pans purchased of the English were filed, and mixed with the gold in the proportion of from five to ten per cent., according to the opinion which the seller formed of the sagacity of the person with whom he had to deal : and thus, by a simple contrivance, some of our countrymen repurchased at three or four guineas per ounce the very article which they had before sold at 2s. 6d. per pound.’

Amid this scene of folly and misfortune, numerous litigations could not fail to arise ; and it is a consolation to reflect that, as far as the interference of the Portuguese governor and the British ambassador could go, the evil was prevented from expanding in its course. A judge of great respectability was appointed for the determination of all cases concerning the English ; and the latter, in consideration of being strangers, were allowed certain privileges, similar to those of the nobility of Portugal. They were permitted to claim the occupancy of such houses as could be spared, exempted from rise of rent, and indulged with long delay in case of embarrassment in their affairs. Hence arose a current saying among the Portuguese, “ that to live comfortably in Brazil it was necessary to become an Englishman.”—So great was the over-stock of British goods, and such the miserable fall in their value, that, ‘ for *one-fourth* part of the quantity sent to Brazil, we should have obtained an equal

equal return by keeping the market at a fair and steady rate.' A recurrence of this evil may be prevented by carefully attending to the articles which are adapted to the consumption of the country, and which may be thus enumerated: hard-ware, low-priced cotton goods, hats, boots, shoes, earthen-ware, glass, cheap furniture, shot, drugs, fancy-articles, common woollen cloths, and salt either from Liverpool or the Cape de Verd islands. A time will arrive, and is probably fast approaching, when the intercourse of Rio de Janeiro with India will be greatly increased: it may become a kind of half-way station between Europe and Asia; and if Brazil on the one hand be freed from the colonial restrictions of the Portuguese, while India, on the other, is laid open to the enterprize of British merchants, we may safely conclude that the extension of trade would proceed with great rapidity.

Having thus adverted to the state of agriculture and of foreign trade in Brazil, we come next to a description of a branch of industry almost peculiar to that country; viz. the manner of working, or rather of washing, the gold-mines. The soil containing particles of this treasure is generally a loose gravel-like stratum, incumbent on granite. This ground is cut into steps twenty and thirty feet in length, two or three feet broad, and about one foot deep. At the bottom of what we may term a flight of such steps, a trench is cut to the depth of two or three feet: water is then let in from higher ground, and on each step are placed six or seven negroes, who, as the water flows gently down, keep the earth continually in motion with shovels. Amid the soil thus stirred and carried down as mud to the lower trench, the particles of gold descend, and are, by their weight, precipitated to the bottom. This operation continues for several days, workmen being in the meanwhile employed at the trench to remove the stones which are carried into it by the waters. The next step is to subject to a second clearance the matter that is precipitated into the trench. For this purpose, negroes provide wooden bowls shaped like a funnel, about two feet wide at the mouth, and five or six inches deep. Each workman takes into his bowl five or six pounds weight of sediment, and, standing in the stream, admits a certain quantity of water; which he stirs about, so that the precious metal, separating from the inferior and lighter substances, settles in the bottom and sides of the bowl. They next rinse the bowl in a larger vessel of clear water, in which they leave the gold, and begin again, each operation being performed in six or eight minutes. The particles of gold produced vary greatly both in number and size, some being hardly discernible to the eye, while others are as large as pease. The value

value at stake in this operation is such as to render it expedient that the negroes should be superintended by overseers. — The shining appearance of the refuse of old washings, lying in numberless heaps, at first dazzled Mr. Mawe's imagination, and made him fancy that they contained some of the finest mineral products: but it was in vain that he and some labourers, whom he had engaged, toiled for three days, in the search: nothing had escaped the vigilant eye of the negroes.

Another mode of separating gold from the soil is called canoe-washing. The canoes are thus made: two planks, twelve or fifteen feet in length, are laid on the ground, forming a gentle slope, and then, at a fall of six inches, two other planks are fixed in a similar direction. On their sides are boards placed edge-ways, and staked down to the ground, so as to form long shallow troughs, the bottoms of which are covered with hides tanned to a certain degree, but retaining the hairs. The water containing the lighter particles of gold being conveyed down these troughs, the gold sinks, and remains entangled in the hair. Every half-hour, the hides are taken up, stretched over a tank, and beaten repeatedly, so as to discharge all the gold into the tank. At night, the tanks are locked up, and the sediment taken from them is carefully washed away by the hand.

Curious as these operations are, they sink into insignificance when compared with the bold manœuvre of diverting a river from its channel, for the purpose of searching its bed. This process takes place at the river Jigitonhonha, which flows through what is called the "diamond-district;" a tract of country lying around the town of Tejuco, situated several hundred miles inland, north of Rio de Janeiro. At a spot called Mandanga, this river, formed by the junction of a number of streams in the diamond-district, is as wide as the Thames at Windsor, and varies in depth from three to nine feet. The current is diverted into a canal cut across a tongue of land round which the river winds, the water being arrested in its course at the head of the canal by an embankment formed of several thousand bags of sand. The channel being thus laid open, the water remaining in its pits is exhausted by machinery; a removal which is followed by carrying off the mud and digging up the *cascalhão*, or stratum, containing particles of gold. As the river admits of these labours during the dry season only, the miners calculate on gaining as much of the stratum as will give them occupation in the farther processes during the rainy months. Having laid the stratum in heaps of ten or twelve tons, they bring, by means of an aqueduct, a stream of water, and proceed to wash the heaps for diamonds in the following manner.

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They erect a long shed, consisting of upright posts supporting a roof thatched with long grass to protect the workmen from the sun. Under this shed is placed a flooring of planks, divided into twenty compartments or troughs. In each trough, a negro stations himself, rakes into it a quantity of *cascalhão*, and admits water, more or less, into the trough. After the water has flowed through the trough for a quarter of an hour, it becomes clearer, having washed away the mud. The negro then throws away the stones remaining in the trough, and proceeds to examine the stratum with great care for diamonds. All this takes place under the eye of overseers; and, when a negro finds a diamond, he rises upright, claps his hands, and delivers the gem to the overseers. The negro who is so fortunate as to discover a diamond weighing $17\frac{1}{2}$ carats is crowned with a wreath of flowers, and receives his freedom: but, if any one be detected in smuggling a diamond, he is chastised and imprisoned. They work about ten hours daily, generally in a stooping posture. At intervals, they pause and take rest; when snuff, of which they are very fond, is handed about among them. — The approach to the diamond-district is very scrupulously guarded by order of the Portuguese government.

With regard to the stratum already mentioned, the substances which are considered as indications of diamonds are bright bean-like iron ore; a slaty flint-like matter; black oxyd of iron; rounded bits of blue quartz; yellow crystal; and other materials entirely different from the soil of the mountains adjacent to this district. Diamonds are not peculiar to the beds of rivers, nor to deep ravines; they have been found in cavities, and in water-courses, on the summit of very high grounds. The flat tracts on each side of the river Jigitonhonha appeared to be equally rich throughout their extent; which enables the officers to calculate the value of an unexplored spot by a comparison with others which they have previously analyzed. "That piece of ground," said the intendant, (pointing to a flat by the side of the river,) "will yield ten thousand carats of diamonds, whenever we shall be required to get them in the regular course of working, or when, on any particular occasion, there arrives a government-order demanding an extraordinary and immediate supply." This river, and other streams in its vicinity, have been in a course of washing for many years, and have produced great quantities of diamonds; which differ very much in size, some being so small that eighteen or twenty are required to the carat; and at other times stones being found which weigh from seventeen to twenty carats each. In the course of years, the present district must be exhausted: but other grounds, not far off, may be considered as a source of supply.

supply. The following anecdote shews the vigilance with which smuggling is watched:

‘ A carrier going to Rio de Janeiro with some loaded mules, was overtaken by two cavalry soldiers, who ordered him to surrender his fowling-piece; which being done, they bored the butt-end with a gimblet, and finding it hollow, took off the iron from the end, where they found a cavity containing about three hundred carats of diamonds, which they immediately seized. The man was hurried away, and thrown into prison at Tejuco, where I afterwards saw him. The diamonds were confiscated, and the soldiers received half their value. The fate of this man is a dreadful instance of the rigour of the existing laws: he will forfeit all his property, and be confined, probably, for the remainder of his days in a loathsome prison, among felons and murderers. — Doubtless, the poor fellow owed his misfortune to some secret villain, in the shape of a confidential friend, who, having learned his mode of carrying diamonds concealed, had, for the sake of a paltry premium, or from some mean-spirited motive, given notice of it to government!’

In the diamond-district, which, from its name, seems to convey the idea of opulence, unfortunately more paupers are found than in any other. This circumstance is owing to the neglect of agriculture; a neglect that is common to almost all quarters in which gold-washings are practised. One pleasing exception was found by Mr. Mawe in travelling through a remote part:

‘ I was received into a very respectable house, which had the appearance of former opulence. The owner Captain Bom Jarden, a venerable old gentleman, came to welcome me: on entering into conversation, he informed me that he had emigrated hither from Oporto at the age of seventeen, and had lived here sixty-two years. He was tempted to settle here by the hope of participating in the rich treasures for which the country was then famed; but he arrived two or three years too late: the mines were already on the decline, and he was obliged to turn his attention to agricultural pursuits, in which he persevered with such success that he was enabled to realize a comfortable independency, and to bring up a numerous family in credit and respectability. It had been well if his neighbours had profited by so eminent an example, instead of deserting the country when the gold on its surface disappeared.’

In these sequestered spots, the chief beast of prey is the Ounce, which is commonly hunted with dogs.

‘ When the carcase of a worried animal has been found, or when an ounce has been seen prowling about, the news is soon proclaimed among the neighbours, two or three of whom take fire-arms loaded with heavy slugs, and go out with the dogs in quest of the animal, who generally lurks in some thicket, near the carcase he has killed, and leaves so strong a scent, that the dogs soon find. When disturbed he retreats to his den, if he has one, the dogs never attempting
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to fasten on him, or even to face him, but, on the contrary, endeavouring to get out of his way, which is not difficult, as the ounce is heavy and slow of motion. If he caves, the sport is at an end, and the hunters make up the entrance; but he more commonly has recourse to a large tree, which he climbs with great facility; here his fate is generally decided, for the hunters get near enough to take a steady aim, and seldom fail to bring him down, one of them reserving his fire to dispatch him, if required, after he has fallen. It generally happens, that one or two of the dogs are killed in coming too near, for even in his dying struggles, a single stroke of his paw proves mortal. The skin is carried home as a trophy, and the neighbours meet and congratulate each other on the occasion.

If in this country we find room for almost annual improvements in machinery, we may safely take it for granted that the want of suitable implements causes the waste of much labour in the mines of Brazil. In many parts, neither carts nor wheelbarrows are in use; and the most cumbrous materials are carried on the heads of poor negroes, who have often to climb ascents on which inclined planes might be employed to great advantage. The best plan that the Portuguese could follow would be to encourage societies of arts, and to distribute models of useful machinery. Together with this object, the improvement of agriculture, of pasturage, and the care of the health of negroes, are of great importance; and an attention to such points as these would lead to a much more permanent kind of wealth than that which is derived from the excavation of mines. The precarious nature of the latter is strikingly exemplified in the town called Villa Rica, situated half way between Rio de Janeiro and the diamond-district. It is the capital of the province of Minas Geraes, and was long reputed the richest town in Brazil. Now, however, it exhibits many melancholy tokens of departed wealth, the houses being partly untenanted, and the rents of those which are occupied being in a course of almost annual diminution. Such was at one time the produce of the neighbouring mines, that between 1730 and 1750, the King's fifth is said, during some years, to have amounted to half a million sterling. Since the decay of these mines, the inhabitants remain in a great measure in idleness, neglecting the cultivation of the fine country around, which would amply compensate the loss of metallic treasures. The credulity, with which reports of new mines are circulated, is surprising, and once occasioned Mr. Mawe (p. 131.) a long and fatiguing journey. It is not uncommon for persons who wish to sell an estate, to resort to the expedient of mixing filings with the earth, and, after the process of washing, to produce them as samples, with the view of enhancing the value of the land. The prevalence of the passion for mining operates to delude

delude the lower orders with the prospect of speedy wealth, and to create in them a disgust for regular labour : yet, if they would be taught by experience, they might observe that those of their countrymen who devote themselves to mining are in general ill clothed and ill fed ; while the followers of agriculture are comparatively strangers to the want of comfort.

We conclude our extracts by a passage containing an account of the author's escape, at Cadiz, in the summer of 1804, from an attack of the dreadful contagion which most persons are agreed in considering to have been the plague.

‘ The effects of this awful scourge were visible in every social circle ; almost in every family ; and perhaps the despondency caused by witnessing them, contributed to extend its fatal sway. I still shudder to remember, that of a party of strangers amounting to five (myself included), who took coffee together one Saturday evening in perfect health, I, on Monday-week following, was the sole survivor. The progress of the disorder was so rapid, that three of them died on the fourth day. —

‘ The first symptoms I felt were extreme lassitude, heaviness, and tremor, accompanied with a considerable degree of fever, which I first observed while on my way to dine with a friend. I returned to my lodgings and took a grain of calomel, as had been my daily custom for some time. This precaution had been suggested to me by a skilful chemist in London, who furnished me with a quantity of that medicine, to be regularly taken whenever I was exposed to contagion of any kind. Believing, however, that my complaint was only a bad cold, I took some tea and retired to bed, but passed a restless night. In the morning while at breakfast, among the Spanish family with whom I lodged, my appearance, and aversion to food, excited the apprehensions of the lady of the house, a humane and (to use an expressive family-phrase) a *motherly* woman, who assured me that I had the plague. Unwilling to believe her, though continually growing worse, I increased my dose of calomel and took tea very copiously. In the afternoon of the day following I wrote to the worthy Mr. Duff, the consul-general, requesting him to send Dr. Fife, an English physician, who, on visiting me, confirmed what my hostess had said, adding, however, that the symptoms were favourable. He prescribed no medicines, but ordered me to take tamarinds and hot mint tea at intervals in large quantities. After a third restless night, I found my pulse was above 130, and the fourth day brought the crisis of my disorder. At night I was suddenly seized with extreme sickness, which lasted the longer, by reason of the great quantities of liquid I had taken ; a profuse perspiration ensued, and did not abate until I was reduced from a robust habit of body to a state of extreme meagreness and debility. I now recovered rapidly, and in six days was enabled to visit my friends. Dr. Fife assured me that the favourable turn of my illness was owing to the calomel I had previously taken ; and added, that if I had doubled the dose on the first appearance of the symptoms, there would, probably, have been no occasion for his attendance.’

In estimating the merits of this work as a literary composition, we find no pretensions to reputation on the score of philosophical or historical reflection. Here are no attempts at general views, except in a few instances, when they are confined to the objects of the author's personal observation, — trade, agriculture, and mineralogy, especially the last. The chief part of the volume is a plain narrative of local and individual occurrences; of the journey through a particular tract; of the situation of a certain town or village; and of the cultivation of a certain district or province. Though composed with care, and free from that repetition which we have so often occasion to censure, it might have been better had many of the humbler details been omitted or abridged. Mr. Mawe, as well as other writers of less modesty, has yet to learn how much may be gained by a discriminating selection of interesting circumstances; and by making a book consist of them, instead of aiming to incorporate with them a multiplicity of subordinate observations.

An Appendix contains several useful documents, viz.

‘ A narrative of the revolutionary proceedings, which lately took place at Buenos Ayres; a memorial on the agriculture, the mines, and the revenue of Brazil; and observations on the prevalent diseases, as well as on the state of society among the middling classes in that country.’

Eight engravings illustrate the work; and the philosopher, who desires to moralize on the forbidding nature of mineral treasures, may discover an apt subject in the bleak and barren appearance of a topaz-mine, which forms (p. 163.) one of the plates. The frontispiece and the last two plates appear to us particularly well executed; as are the representations of minerals collected by the author.

We shall briefly notice, in another article, Mr. Mawe's separate publication intitled “ A Treatise on Diamonds,” &c.

ART. II. *The Works of Damiano, Ruy-Lopez, and Salvo, on the Game of Chess; translated and arranged: with Remarks, Observations, and copious Notes on the Games. Containing, also, several original Games and Situations, by the Editor. To which are added, the Elements of the Art of Playing without seeing the Board. By J. H. Sarratt, Author of a Treatise on Chess, &c., and Professor of the Game. 8vo. pp. 382. 12s. Boards. Boosey. 1813.*

OUGHT solemnity, or gaiety, in literature to predominate? Is it better to be grave about games, or gamesome about the grave? One privilege of age is to prefer the former and easier
 I alternative;

alternative; and so we shall begin a serious formal academic dissertation. Aware that we have been preceded in this career by various continental authors, — that in Spain, Ruy-Lopez de Segura, — in Italy, Domenico Tarsia, — in France, Sarrasin, — and in Germany, Wieland, — have written on the Origin of Chess, — we still think that some notices have been neglected, and that some doubts remain which may be solved.

The earliest European writer who mentions Chess is the celebrated Greek princess, Anna Comnena of Constantinople. She calls the game *Zatrikion*, and says that the Greeks derived it from the Babylonians; and that her father Alexius, who was fond of playing, owed the detection of a conspiracy against him to the friend with whom, late at night, he sat at Chess.

It has been surmised by some that Chess travelled into western Europe from Constantinople; and that it was carried by commercial men to Barcelona, to Venice, and to various sea-ports which traded with the Greek metropolis. By others it has been supposed that the Moors of Spain took thither this oriental game, and that France and Italy learnt it from the Spaniards. It has been said by a third set of antiquaries, that the crusaders acquired this game in the East, and brought it with them from the Holy Land. In the first case, the technical terms would have a Greek, and in the second case a Spanish complexion, or derivation: but the words *chekmate*, *rook*, &c are Persian, so that they seem in fact to have been directly imported from the East.

Hyde, in his dissertation *De Ludis Orientalium*, states that the Persians do not claim to be the inventors of Chess, but admit that they received it from Hindostan, in the reign of Chosroes Nushirvan, that is, about the middle of the sixth century. This idea Sale confirms in the preface to his translation of the Koran, which work contains the earliest known allusion to the game of Chess. Borzu, the physician of Nushirvan, imported the game from Canyacuvia. Freret, in his *Origine des Echecs*, remarks that, in the great dictionary of the Chinese, at the word *Stang-ki*, it is related that Chess was introduced into China under the reign of Vouti, who acceded to the throne in the year 537 of the Christian era; and that the game was brought from Hindostan. Thus all authorities conspire to shew that Chess is derived from the Hindoos, and began to be played at the beginning of the sixth century.

Sir William Jones, in the first volume of his works, (p. 521.) gives an account of an Indian game called *Chaturaji*, or the four kings; in which, eight pieces, having such movements as our chess-men, were stationed at each of the four corners, and moved by four players, not according to system, but as directed
by

by the throw of dice. The observations made during these compulsory moves appear to have suggested the principles of voluntary Chess; which was probably substituted for the older game of chance, in consequence of the prevalence of a superstitious opinion authorized in the Institutes of Menu, and corroborated in the Koran, that games of hazard are contrary to religious duty. The name *Chaturanga*, or four-corners, was given to this reformed game, and remained attached to it after the subsequent amendment of consolidating the allied armies, and reducing the players to two.

D'Herbelot tells us that a Bramin named Sissa, the son of Daber, whom Arabian writers call Nassir, invented the game of Chess for the amusement and instruction of King Behram. Whether this be the Vyasa of Sir William Jones, who left rules for playing the old *Chaturanga*, some future orientalist may ascertain. In our judgment, the Hindoos invented only the *Chaturanga*, and the Persians devised the admirable alteration of reducing the players to two. Our conjecture reposes on the etymological indications that *Chaturanga* is a Sanscrit word adopted by the Persians in the form *Chatrang*, as the name of Chess; whereas the piece, which we call the queen, has the native Persian appellation *ferz*, vizir. Now the primitive *Chaturanga* of the Hindoos had no vizirs; each of the four armies consisting of eight figures headed by a king. Surely it is reasonable to imagine that those, who have named this piece, introduced it. We may add that Chess, in its present form, when played by the Hindoos, borrows Persian technical terms. Lieutenant Moor, in his *Narrative of a Detachment from the Mahratta Army*, (1794,) relates that he played at Chess against four Bramins in a pagoda, and that they pronounced the final *Shab mat* (these are Persian words) with the most polished gentleness.

Sir William Jones is of opinion that Chess was invented by one effort of some powerful genius; that it was created by the first intention; and that it sprang, like Pallas, full-grown, from the head of the great contriver. We consider a progressive formation to be far more analogous to the usual course of nature; and we think that we have indicated with probability some of the leading steps in the interesting series. One, however, deserves farther contemplation. The Hollanders have a game which they call Malay draughts, and which they imported from the East Indies. In this game, the pawns move diagonally, and take strait forwards; there are crowned pieces for the beginning, which take backwards and forwards; and a triple crown is acquired with a farther privilege, like that of the chess-rook, on reaching the extreme row of the board. This game seems to pre-

serve a trace of one of the intermediate steps between Draughts and Chess; it is played with five queens and ten pawns, on a board of a hundred squares. If we had not the evidence of history, adduced from Vyasa by Sir William Jones, that Chaturanga was originally played with dice, we might not have inferred that Chess had been a game of chance in any part of its progress.

The early metrical romances of Europe ascribe much proficiency in Chess to the knights of Arthur, and to the paladins of Charlemagne. Sir Trystan plays with Essylda, and Sir Huon with the daughter of King Ivoirin. This, however, is an anachronism; and these writers carry back to a prior period manners which were observed among the crusaders. In the romance of the four brothers, Gawin, Agravain, Gueret, and Galleret, who go in quest of Sir Launcelot, the critical adventure consists in playing at Chess with the fairy Florimel. — In the Romaunt of the Rose, where Chess is mentioned, occurs the following line :

“ Fols, chevaliers, *fierce*, ni rocs;”

whence it appears that the Persian *ferz*, vizir, was the original European name for the piece called in England the queen. So again, in the Latin monkish rhimes which describe a pawn's advancement,

“ *Tunc augmentatur, tunc fercia jure vocatur.*”

According to Mr. Twiss, whose book on Chess deserves republication, the first modern writer on this subject was Jacob de Cœsolis, a Dominican friar, who flourished about the year 1200, and who composed twenty-four chapters concerning the origin and nature of the game; without, however, including any rules of play. This work was translated into French before 1330 by John de Vignay, another monk; whose version was farther translated into English, and is remarkable for being the first book printed in England with metal types by Caxton, in 1474.

Our Exchequer is so named from its pavement resembling a chess-board; and in a book preserved there, which records the personal expences of Henry VII., an entry occurs of fifty-six shillings and eight-pence lost at tables and chess. — Skelton, the poet-laureat to Henry VIII., was fond of Chess, and celebrates the game in rhyme: it often supplies him with an allusion or a metaphor. — Queen Elizabeth was taught to play Chess by her preceptor Roger Ascham; and, as she occupied his time much, both in teaching and in amusing her, it was considered as ungrateful that she never rewarded him with any thing better than a prebendal stall at York. — King James I. was fond of Chess, and willingly taught the game to his young friends. In

one of his speeches, he says that "Kings can exalt low things, and abase high things, making the subjects, like men at Chess, a pawn to take a bishop or a knight."

These, however, are mere antiquarian particulars, of no use to the progress of the science of Chess. They may amuse the idleness of a solitary amateur, but will not sharpen the skill of contending champions: they may busy the imagination about a favourite pursuit, but have no tendency to strengthen the intellect for conflict. Let us turn to other considerations.

Damiano had the glory of being the first author who, in Europe, wrote a treatise intended to facilitate the study of the game. The title, or translated title, of his work is *Libro da imparare giocare a Scacchi*, of which the present author does not possess the original, but the long subsequent edition of 1564. Damiano was a Portuguese: his instructions are issued both in Italian and in Spanish, so that he addressed the entire Provençal public; and his book was reprinted both at Barcelona and at Venice. His games are drawn up as if castling was not in use.—Of this work, Mr. Sarratt thus speaks in his preface:

‘ It is divided into ten chapters: the first contains the names of the pieces, their situations, and some general rules; the second is entitled “*Del primo modo di giocare*,” the first method of playing; that is, beginning with the king’s pawn: the third chapter treats of the second method of playing; i. e. beginning with the queen’s pawn: in the fourth is inserted the method of playing when the odds of the pawn for the move are given: the fifth contains games in which the pawn and move are given: the sixth, games in which the knight is given for the pawn and move: all these games appear to be entitled to unqualified approbation: the seventh chapter contains games in which the knight is given: in the eighth chapter are inserted the subtle moves, (“*tratti suttili*”) called, in “vulgar” Spanish, *primores*; they are sixteen in number: the ninth chapter contains his well-known ends of games; these Damiano calls “*Giochi de i partiti*,” they are in number sixty-eight: the tenth and last chapter contains “The Elements of the Art of Playing without seeing the Board.”

‘ Of these ten chapters the editor has translated only seven: he has not translated the first chapter, from a belief that it contains nothing that is either instructive or entertaining. In speaking of the pawns, Damiano says, “*El movimiento della pedona è la prima volta andare tre case se vole*,” but no doubt he includes the square on which the pawn is originally placed.

‘ The eighth and ninth chapters the editor has omitted, from a conviction that all Damiano’s “subtle moves” and ends of games have already been published. They are to be found in the works of Lolli; Dr. Ercole dal Rio’s treatise; Cozio, and Stamms; and in “*Les Stratagèmes des Echecs*,” &c.

'The degree of skill which is conspicuous in the greater number of these ends of games cannot be surpassed.

'It is rather singular that Mr. Twiss does not mention Damiano's directions for playing without seeing the board. In the copy which is in the editor's possession, these directions occupy several very closely printed pages: they are entitled, "*Dell arte del giocare alla mente.*"

'The greater part of Damiano's treatise was translated into English, and published in London in the year 1562: it is entitled, "*The pleasaunt and wittie Playe of the Cheasts renewed. Lately translated out of Italian into French, and now set furth in Englishe, by James Rowbothum. Printed at London, 1562.*"

Damiano was succeeded by Ruy-Lopez, a Spanish priest of Cafra, who printed his book on Chess at Alcala, in 1561. It contains sixty-six games, of which twenty-four are from Damiano: it was translated into Italian, and reprinted in 1584.

Mr. Sarratt awards to Damiano a degree of skill superior to that of Lopez, but inferior to that of Salvio, who published at Naples, in 1604, "*Il Puttino, del Salvio, sopra el gioco dei Scacchi.*" The first part of this work contains an historical account of the game, with numerous anecdotes of eminent players; such as Buzecca, a Saracen, and Leonardo da Cutri. Salvio excelled so young at Chess, that he was called *il puttino*, the boy, by excellence, and travelled about to exhibit his skill. Early exercise is in every thing favourable to superior proficiency. He visited Rome in 1574, where he played both with Ruy-Lopez and with Leonardo da Cutri, and beat them both: these two players had been engaged with each other in the presence of Philip II. of Spain; and Leonardo, having won, received a considerable present.

'Salvio's book on chess,' says Mr. Sarratt, 'is, perhaps, the best that ever was written: with very few exceptions his games are admirably played; all his gambits have been imitated, and even copied, by every player who has written on Chess, even by Greco and Philidor.'

Among the good books on Chess, which Mr. Sarratt omits to enumerate in his preface, though he uses it in his progress, we are disposed to reckon the French work printed for König of Strasburg in 1802, intitled "*Stratagèmes des Echecs.*" The author of that concise but condensed pocket-volume is probably a German learned in the literature of Chess, and perhaps the celebrated Moses Hirschel himself. Hitherto the "*Traité des Amateurs,*" printed in 1775, had been the popular book of the French on this subject: but the author of the *Stratagèmes* avails himself of Greco, of Stamma, of Lolli, of Philidor, of Stein who printed at the Hague in 1789, and of Koch who published

ished in 1801. A principal advantage of the *Stratagèmes* is the transparent method of mapping the chess-board which is adopted in it, and the brief literal notation which records the successive steps of warfare. This is a real amendment of what may be called the stenography of Chess, and much facilitates the understanding of a literary perusal of any given game. It is a plan of notation invented by Moses Hirschel, a German Jew, who edited Greco and Stamma, the Calabrian and the Aleppo games, on his own principle of checquered and literal delineation; and who is deservedly honoured for the apt simplicity of his new scientific character, which forms a sort of universal language for Chess. Like the notes of the musician, or the flourishes of the Chinese, or the figures of the arithmetician, it can be read by any nation in its own tongue: it is a pasigraphy, remarkable alike for conciseness and distinctness.

To have been foremost in introducing into this country, and bringing into domestic circulation, a method of literal description which the continent has adopted and sanctioned, and which forms, like the invention of chemical characters, an epoch in the science to which it has been applied, would have done honour to the erudition and the liberality of Mr. Sarratt. Englishmen are often reproached with a surly and sluggish indifference to the merits of foreigners, and are accused of chusing to learn nothing which is not taught by some one of their countrymen. Here was an opportunity of repelling in a degree this national reproach, by displaying an alert and speedy docility to real amelioration. Let no man silently admire a rival: envy never finds her account in suppressing the claims of a competitor for immortality.

Mr. Sarratt first translates into English some games of Damiano, which extend through thirty-six pages: then follow those of Ruy-Lopez, which occupy one hundred and twenty-eight. On the fifteenth game of this last author, Mr. S. is especially severe, but not without reason: for it is indeed time that the reputation of Ruy-Lopez should sink to its natural level. He was a priest, and enjoyed, as an eminent chess-player, access to a sovereign who patronized the game; the courtiers of Philip II., therefore, were anxious to enhance, and the clergy to blazon, his reputation, until the Pope himself condescended to regard his only title to ecclesiastical distinction. The bladder of orthodoxy, he has hitherto floated on the waves of fame rather by an inspired than an inherent buoyancy, and collapses at the first wound from the style of criticism. How many swimming reputations of our own age are, in like manner, inflated by the breath of court-favor, or the puffs of domineering parties, and must await the disinterested verdict of the unborn

for a just appreciation of talents "which the king delighteth to honour."

After the games of the Reverend Ruy-Lopez, Mr. Sarratt, with a disagreeable want of method, returns to the work of Damiano, and extracts or abridges from it the "Elements of the Art of playing without seeing the Board." Few persons would wish to acquire the art of playing by memory; it degrades the gentleman into the showman, to be dazzlingly skilful: but, by studying these elements, a much more important facility is acquired; that of rapidly mooting cases in the imagination, and pursuing the consequences of a given move through all its possible effects. Now this facility of internal comparison, this habit of contemplating all the practicable results of a given situation, constitutes the appropriate art of reasoning at Chess, and is the very exertion of intellect to which the chess-player is required to inure himself. By preparing the memory to play without a board, the imagination is tutored to compare without experiment.

Lastly, occur the games of Salvio. The Italian method of castling, adopted in these games, should have been explained by an introductory note. Far the greater part of the book, namely, two hundred and seventy-six pages, is occupied with the exertions of Salvio; who introduced into literature, we believe, the word *gambetto*, to designate the *stride*, or double move of a pawn. This word is here Englished *gambit*, and not *gambet*; which latter form we should have deemed more consonant with English analogy. An admirable gambet is detailed at p. 208.; which we advise and exhort those of our readers who delight in Chess to execute on their chess-boards; under the guidance of Mr. Sarratt, whose annotations display critical sagacity and original resource.

The most unfortunate of Salvio's games seem to be those which are detailed at p. 275. and p. 311. In the first line of p. 380., we denounce an error of the press, which put us to some inconvenience in attempting to perform, with our ebony and ivory actors, the interesting and truly dramatic situation which is contrived by the poet of the game. The one party for a long time appears to be actuated by unmeaning folly, and the other by prospective prudence; when a sudden reverse of fortune, which seems to bestow the character of wisdom on the successful, consigns to his inextricably fatal catastrophe the monarch of the more powerful nation.

Like a Greek tragedy, a game at Chess may naturally be divided into three acts, the beginning, the middle, and the end. An orderly teacher would first descant on the method of opening a game, and decorate his lecture with specimens of the more curious and masterly outsets, which are imagined, or preserved,

preserved, by the classical writers on the art. He would next collect and criticise the poignant positions, and the embarrassing situations, which have extorted contradictory counsels from eminent champions. Finally, he would enlarge on the methods which are useful in deciding the termination; and he would bring under contemplation a selection of the more splendid, revolutionary, and decisively sudden catastrophes. Here, however, we are made to travel with some confusion from games to gambets, from situations to openings, from variations to positions, and from conclusions to attacks; always indeed occupied with interesting, but not with consecutive, matter.

If it be the office of the drama, as Aristotle pretends, to purge the passions of pity and fear, and, by exhausting their excesses on ideal cases, to bring them under the controul of discretion, surely it might be the nobler office of Chess to purge the military passion. While it is feeding hopes and fears, analogous to those of warfare, with harmless gratifications, it is adapted to insinuate the pernicious consequences of a wild and gambling temerity; and to teach the disciple of its lessons uniformly to trust in adequate precaution alone for the means of victory. The poet of *Caissa* has inculcated a great moral, in making Mars the allegorical contriver of Chess.

It has been said that Chess tends excessively to repress an adventurous disposition. By accustoming men to a struggle in which skill, and skill alone, is always necessarily to predominate, they are brought out of the world of experience into that of philosophy. They acquire an undue reliance on cold foresight and precaution; and they are made to look with contempt not only on the magic of prayer, but on the miracles of fortune. Now human life, like whist, is made up of chance and skill; and, though it is worth while to learn the play, yet sometimes the cards, and sometimes the partner, will disappoint the wisest efforts. A mixed game prepares the mind to compliment prosperity with the praise of skill, and to console adversity with the notice of its unlucky deals: but Chess, where wisdom always wins, may lead to that insolent obduracy which worships success with unqualified admiration, and pelts every child of ruin with the nickname, "*fool*." If the laws of nature were not too complex for us to calculate their individual results, not only superstition would expire, but pity also among men; and is there no room for apprehending that an exclusive and persevering application to this game, in which every situation is the obvious result of unswerving laws, may favour a turn of mind that is more welcome in the magistrate than in the neighbour? Against inconsistency in our expectations, however, Chess is a powerful antidote.

Cerutti, in his animated poem on the game, ascribes the invention to philosophy :

*“ Mon ami, prolongeons une innocente guerre,
Qui charme nos loisirs, sans desoler la terre ;
L'ambition se plaint dans les combats sanglans ;
Mais la philosophie aux combats des talens.”*

It is related of Philidor, who excelled all the London players, that on the twentieth of June 1795 he waited by appointment on the Turkish ambassador, played six games against him, and lost them all. The Turk had made the condition that his queen, as is usual at Constantinople, should have the knight's move, and this put Philidor out of his combinations. It is farther stated, in the narrative of Mr. Twiss, that the Turkish ambassador objected to use Philidor's sculptured figures with horses' heads, and produced pieces made by the turner, which too nearly resembled one another. The Turk stipulated this last condition out of superstition. Chess is prohibited in the Koran : but the Mohammedan clergy, finding it impossible to extirpate the game, wished to discover its compatibility with the faith ; and they accordingly argued that Mohammed's objection to Chess was founded on its idolatrous character. The players used images, which it was even forbidden to make, and which might easily restore the use of teraphim or pocket-gods. Having given this opinion, they permitted a Chess which was played with plain pieces.

We are aware with how bowed a neck, with how crouching a step, in how humble an attitude, a man should approach a mufti ; with how hesitating an accent, and how faulting a tongue, he should venture to differ from him : but, if we may trust our version of the Koran, and the collocation of the prohibition there among those which are given against games of chance, we should rather lean to the doctrine that Mohammed forbid Chess not as an idolatrous game, but as a game of hazard ; and we draw from the prohibition this curious farther inference, that, at the time of the publication of the Koran, Chess was still a game of chance, and existed only in the form called Chaturanga. This prohibition in the Koran so exactly coincides with the period at which the Persians dropped the use of dice at Chaturanga, that it evidently occasioned the reform ; and thus the Unitarian prophet may himself be considered as having made the greatest practical improvement in Chess, which that noblest of games has received in the course of its progress from infancy to maturity.

We hope that, in future editions of his meritorious work, Mr. Sarratt will adopt the character of Hirschel, and the consequent

sequent preference of a small quarto form of publication. If we consider him as somewhat behind-hand in point of literary information, we attribute high rank to his practical strength in *zatrikiology*, and think well both of his judgment in criticising the game and of his inventive resource as a player of difficult problems.

ART. III. *Sermons on the prevalent Errors and Vices, and on various other Topics*; from the German of the Rev. George Joachim Zollikofer, Minister of the reformed Congregation at Leipsick. By the Rev. William Tooke, F.R.S. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 630. in each Volume. 1l. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

ON former occasions, Mr. Tooke has obliged British readers with translations of the Discourses of the eminent and truly practical German divine, whom he now again introduces to us*; and by presenting them with these last specimens of M. Zollikofer's eloquence, he will no doubt obtain the warmest thanks of those who wish to bring wisdom and virtue, morality and religion, into common life, and to promote the complete influence of those attributes over the ordinary thoughts, occupations, and amusements of man. Though the character of Zollikofer as a preacher has been already sketched, we cannot let this opportunity escape of testifying the high satisfaction which we have experienced in the perusal of these posthumous volumes. We do not recollect any set of sermons in the English language which are so minutely and closely practical, which so boldly attack the errors and vices that prevail among us, and which tend so completely to win us to the love and obedience of Christian truth. If they are not such exact models of pulpit-eloquence as we could recommend to our preachers for servile imitation, yet in many points they deserve their most careful study. Zollikofer does not skirmish at a distance with error, vice, and folly: he comes, in every instance, to close quarters; he forces the Christian professor rigidly to examine himself; and he speaks out all his mind, without any subterfuge or evasion. His sentiments are expressed with a clearness which is highly commendable: yet, notwithstanding the energy with which he displays his conviction of the truth and importance of his own system of doctrine, he never assumes the attitude of the controversialist. It is apparent that his faith is not what would generally pass current for orthodoxy: but Christians of all denominations must respect his ardent zeal in the cause of practical religion.

* See Rev. Vol. xlviii. N. S. p. 163.; and lii. p. 37.

To preach, however, like Zollikofer, it is necessary to live like him; and, if the picture exhibited of him, in the Eulogy prefixed to the first volume of these sermons, be in any respect a correct likeness, he was well qualified to shew his flock the requisites in which practical Christianity consisted. In a short preface to these sermons, Mr. Tooke speaks of them as being 'faithful transcripts of the preacher's life;' and, impressed with a deep sense of their value, he describes them in terms of praise which are indeed animated, but at the same time just.

'They breathe,' says he, 'the dictates of eternal verity; unchangeable and immortal as wisdom and virtue and God. He that constructs the fabric of his felicity upon them, will infallibly find by every day's experience, that he is building, not upon scholastic theories, not upon theological sophisms, not upon metaphysical subtilties, not upon loose and mouldering sand; but upon a firm and immovable rock: for, that rock is Christ.'

How does M. C. G. Spranger speak of this deceased minister of the reformed congregation at Leipsic, in a discourse addressed to a company of M. Zollikofer's friends, met together in commemoration of his death, January 1778? His oration, we must admit, is inflated and diffuse: but some allowance must be made for him on being transported with an enthusiastic admiration of the subject of his eulogy. The lives of too many men are calculated rather to make us ashamed than proud of human nature: but the portrait of Zollikofer exhibits its true dignity and moral capabilities:

'We are here met together,' says M. Spranger, 'to solemnize the memory of a man—alas! of a man, who for virtue, for us, for humanity, has been too early carried off—of a man, who in life was the picture of virtue, and whom in death we would chuse for a pattern—who frequently reminded us of mortality, of the grave, of corruption, who poured the balm of consolation from his lips, addressing himself to the wounded and desponding heart with gospel lenitives, who inspired us with grand and exalted sentiments of the dignity of man, vindicated and justified the dispensations of Providence, and taught us to extol its ways as unimpeachable and just—of a man, who with eloquence like a perennial stream, captivated all who heard him to the love and veneration of virtue—who to us was the safe instructor, the faithful friend, the constant benefactor, who was an useful member of society, a powerful champion in the cause of truth, an advocate and defender of the rights of man, a sincere Christian, an accomplished scholar, the patron of the poor, a kind husband—and, in a word, one of the best and noblest of men.'

'He was reasonable, modest, prudent, honoured the human nature, even in its most distorted features, repulsed no man from him, was affable to all, was the friend and promoter of joy, and gave rise to agreeable sensations whenever he could. He daily studied the great book of nature—and all his actions, his speeches, his whole deportment,

ment, all his immortal works, are striking proofs, how conversant he was with her lore. He had no desire to shine and to amaze but to inform, to convince; he availed himself of the abilities of every one, even the dull-est intellects, knowing that every man possesses somewhat instructive, entertaining, profitable. He condescended to every one, listened to all, and never decided with precipitance or perverseness; affectionately relieved the doubter of his doubt, and conducted the wanderer to the better way. Gravity was the reigning character in his conversation, which he knew how to temper with affability, and season with humour, never exceeding the bounds of propriety. He spoke little; but what he said had previously passed the ordeal of his judgment. He never made a promise, which he did not intend or was not in a condition to keep. He was a friend to order, and from the whole of his domestic economy it was manifest that he was truly a sage. He loved, esteemed, and encouraged the arts and sciences, with which he was intimately acquainted; but he pursued them in such a manner as not for their sake to injure his weakly constitution. In studying, in reading, in sleeping, in waking, in short in whatever he did, the most perfect order and regularity prevailed. He was bountiful—yet he never allowed his feelings to get the better of his judgment.'

That M. Zollikofer was a man of distinguished sanctity and virtue, and that he had schooled his own heart in the principles of Christian piety and benevolence, all his discourses indisputably prove. Like one of the antient prophets, "he cries aloud and spares not." He attacks vice in all its quarters, and under all its disguises. He places religion on its true basis, and suffers nothing to be substituted in the room of its divine essence. The observance of rites and ceremonies, of sabbaths and ordinances, he considers only as the signs and indications of sanctity, not as making any parts of sanctity itself; and he urges the absolute necessity of practical virtue, in a strain of eloquence which is not very common on our side of the water. We are presented in the first volume with a most valuable series of discourses, intitled "Cautions against the Abuse of Truth," in which much reproof and exhortation will be found skilfully adapted to the present state of the Christian church. Without attempting to enumerate the various heads of caution which these sermons contain, or to glance at the distinct subjects which here pass in review before the preacher, we shall merely offer a specimen of his close mode of exhortation, selected from his discourse on 'The Pre-eminence of Moral Obligations over the Rites and Offices of Religious Worship.'

'The first class of truths against the abuse whereof we caution you, my pious hearers, regards the value and the design of divine worship, and its relation to the rest of our moral actions. Namely, we have occasionally warned you of superstitious ideas concerning the design and effects of divine worship and the value of what are peculiarly called exercises of devotion, and have given the preference to the actual

tual accomplishment of our duties, to a just, pious, and beneficent conduct, over all those solemn acts and exercises. God, we have repeatedly told you, requires not of us that we should worship him and serve him, for his own sake, but for our's. And if we do this, if we adore him in society, rejoice in common over his benefits and thank him for them, flee to him for grace and assistance, submit ourselves to his dispensations, inform ourselves of his will, and vow fidelity and obedience to him, we properly serve, not him, but ourselves. We thereby promote not his, but merely our own advantage. God wants not our service ; but we want it ourselves, to our improvement, to our pacification and happiness. The thoughts of him and of the relations in which we are placed towards him, are thus to be renewed, and the more deeply imprinted in our minds ; our good resolutions are to be thus rendered the more sacred and inviolable ; our acquiescence in his ordinances and his dispensations are thus to be the more firmly grounded. This is the ultimate view of all religious worship, of all solemn rites, of all exercises of devotion ; and they acquire the whole of their value from the good moral effects they produce in us, from the influence they have on our behaviour and our happiness. It is therefore superstition, if we promise ourselves from our acts of divine worship, considered alone, without any regard to their influence on our mind and manners ; if we imagine that God is so particularly well pleased with our praying, singing, reading, and hearing his word, and the like, that he will bless and reward us for them either in this or the eternal world, though we be neither the wiser nor the better for them. It is superstition, gross, flagrant superstition, if we think by such outward actions, though performed with attention and with devotion, to atone for our former sins and iniquities, or even to acquire by them a tacit permission to sin and to trespass afresh. He who thinks thus knows nothing of God and his will, and his worship is fruitless and vain.'

Avoiding curious but unprofitable discussion, M. Zollikofer directly levels his exhortations at the errors and vices to which human nature is most prone ; and he endeavours to rouse his flock to that rational and sublime morality which constitutes the essence of the Christian character. Let it not be supposed, however, that he neglects the inculcation of those principles on which alone consistent holiness can be maintained ; or that he passes over in silence those theological errors by which the God and Father of the universe is vilified, while his rational creatures are led to entertain the most irrational hopes. A spirited 'caution is given against the abuse of truth with regard to the redemption effected by Jesus Christ ;' and the observations offered on this subject merit the consideration of all those divines, who contend for the doctrines of Substitution and Satisfaction. On the former, he says, 'We know nothing of the seizing and appropriating of the righteousness and virtue of another, however shining and meritorious this righteousness and this virtue may inherently be.'

Against

Against the doctrine of Satisfaction, he argues :

‘ The work of his [Christ’s] redemption, therefore, had not in view to appease God our creator and father, to satisfy his offended justice, and to avert his anger and wrath from sinful men. By such ideas we degrade the Deity, the supremely perfect spirit, below the level of mankind, and impute to him weaknesses and passions of which he cannot possibly be capable. That which Jesus did and suffered in our behalf, was according to the express doctrine of Scripture, not the cause of the benevolence and the love of God to man, but an effect and a demonstration of it. Just as little did Jesus do and suffer any thing for absolving us from what as men we do, and according to the course of things must suffer ; and if he perfectly fulfilled the law of God, then the real benefit that thence accrues to us is this, that in him we have the fairest pattern and exemplar of obedience and rectitude. His redemption then is not a physical, but a moral redemption, not a deliverance from the dominion of some evil demon, but deliverance from the tyrannical sway of error and vice. His redemption is not therefore all at once applied to us, but by regular gradations, and in proportion as we allow ourselves to be disenslaved, instructed, and improved by him and his doctrine. The representations which the apostles give us of this whole matter in their epistolary writings, relate for the most part to the then prevailing ideas, prejudices, opinions, exigencies of mankind, and accordingly are not literally and universally to be understood. Had the apostles written to Christians in our times, in our language, and in reference to the nature and degree of our knowledge, they would certainly have expressed themselves quite otherwise, they would have omitted all that relates to sacrifices, expiations, priests, purifications, ransom, sanctuary, from their style and manner of representation.’

The last remark in this extract is indeed important, and has not we think been sufficiently regarded. Divines seem to forget that the frequent allusions to the antient ceremonial ritual of the Jews were employed by the apostles to suit the ideas of those persons to whom they wrote ; and that, if the same apostles were now with us, they would protest against the comments generally attached to their epistles, as forced, and as expressive of meanings which they never intended to convey.

As connected with the subject of Judaism, which ‘ has always had an influence, more or less, on the minds and manners of Christians,’ we must introduce the preacher’s remarks on *Christian Liberty*, the title of the *forty-fourth* sermon (misnumbered the *forty-ninth*). Here the difference between the Mosaic and the Christian dispensations is clearly stated. It is also observed that to the Jew ‘ all was duty and nothing voluntary :’ that in reference to divine worship, ‘ time, place, method, every circumstance was accurately defined, and might in no case be altered :’ — ‘ that the economy of the Israelites was that of a people in a state of infancy, and consequently consisted for the

most part in rites, ceremonies, and bodily exercises, which were confined to stated times and places.' On the other hand, we find that 'the divine worship of Christians is adapted to men of riper years, and was principally to consist in devout sentiments and affections of the heart, in a profound and ever present reverence for God; that it was to be more spiritual than sensual, and to be distinguished rather by sincerity and simplicity than by pomp and splendor.' Proceeding on this principle, M. Zollikofer maintains, in the first place, that 'the Christian, by virtue of the "liberty wherewith Christ has made him free," is restricted to no particular time respecting divine worship.'

'He has no need to celebrate either Sabbaths, or new moons, or Jewish festivals. Christianity has utterly abolished this distinction of seasons and of days. To the Christian, who is animated by the spirit of Christianity, one day is as holy as another; they are all devoted to the service of God and of man, to justice and beneficence. He has the Lord always before him, walks continually in his presence, constantly keeps near him, never lives at so remote a distance from that eternal fountain of his life and his happiness, from his gracious, heavenly Father, that his thoughts of him and his delight in him, which are so congenial to him, must first be waked or could only find entrance into his heart by particular celebrations. Even the celebration of our Lord's nativity, and the Christian holidays, are not imposed as a yoke upon him, not given him as injunctions by which he must absolutely be directed, and from the observance whereof he can never be absolved. They are wholesome, venerable, yet human regulations and institutions, which not till long after the founding of Christianity acquired the general respect of obligatory laws. The Christian respects these ordinances; he observes them, forasmuch as he knows how indispensably necessary they are to the generality of Christians for their instruction and their encouragement in good, and how profitable they are to himself. He frequents the assemblies of the faithful and their social worship with pleasure and satisfaction, never absenting himself without weighty reasons for so doing; when there, exerts all the attention, all the veneration and devotion, which so holy a business demands: but he does it voluntarily, not because he positively must do it, not because he attributes to these acts of worship any particular efficacy, independent on his frame of mind, any peculiarly great value in the sight of God; but because he knows from experience, that they are edifying and corroborative in good both to himself and to others: and then he never afflicts, never reproaches himself, if he cannot regularly do this, if he is prevented from it by unavoidable avocations, by bodily infirmities, by domestic contingencies. Just so he thinks too respecting private acts of worship and devotion. It is to him a real, heartfelt satisfaction, when he can immediately direct his first thoughts to God, when at the morning dawn he can lift up his heart to his heavenly Father, and then occupy himself somewhat more expressly in reflections on the important doctrines of morality and religion.

ligion, in renewing his good resolutions, in other exercises of piety. Thus as it were puts his soul in tune for the whole day, yields nourishment to his mind and to his heart, fortifies him against the temptations and disappointments he may meet with in the day, and inspires him with fresh alacrity in the faithful discharge of the duties of his calling. But if he is not always successful in drawing nigh to the Deity by a truly inward, faithful prayer, and in penetrating his heart with these important doctrines of religion, or if he is prevented from it by external contingencies, if he is by them compelled to let a considerable portion of the day elapse without such exercises of devotion, he however knows that he is confined to no stated time for these exercises, that he can set about them at any time, and never with better success than when he feels within him the strongest impulse to them, and is least distracted by outward objects. He knows that he can keep up his correspondence with God by frequent elevation of his heart to him in silence, and that he cannot better serve God, nor please him more, than by at every time doing that which is right and proper and useful to his brethren.

Though M. Zollikofer does not regard the fourth commandment as binding on Christians, he is strenuous in asserting the utility of a sabbath for the important purposes of social worship. The Jewish sabbath, so far from being adopted into the Christian code, was virtually repealed by the practice of the apostles, who selected another day for their church-services, yet gave no specific rule about stated days and times. So far, all superstitious reverence for specific seasons, as being more holy than others, was strongly discountenanced: but it does not hence follow that Christian churches are not to appoint fixed days for the worship of God. Good sense, and a regard for general edification, require such appointments; and though one body of Christians be not obliged to adopt the regulations of another body, yet believers, when they are congregated into the form of a church, will consider it as their duty to select certain days to be kept holy.

Of the 58 sermons included in these two bulky volumes, we shall not undertake regularly to specify even the titles. It may suffice, we hope, to observe that the preacher attacks *Levity, Dissipation, Luxury, Gaming, Religious Indifference, Fanaticism, Superstition, Envy, Bad Habits*, and particularly descants on the *Quality and pernicious Consequences of Sin in general*. To recommend the practice of religion, he defines the *Nature of true Sanctity and Goodness of Heart*; points out the *Circumstances which enhance the Value of Virtue*; and exhorts to *Self-Examination, Humility, Patience, Sincerity, and Beneficence*, holding up the *Piety and Devotion of Jesus as a Pattern to all his Followers*. Towards the conclusion of the second volume, he repeats in a new form some of his cautions against the abuse of

of truth, in an '*Examination of some Aphorisms and Maxims in religious Matters, partly false, and partly misunderstood.*' Here the judgment and plain dealing of the preacher are fully displayed, and ought not to be disregarded. Indeed, these volumes are so replete with wholesome admonition, that we may safely assert that the man who would daily read one of M. Zollikofer's discourses could not be the slave of folly, superstition, and vice, but would probably surpass his neighbours in true piety, in self-government, and in social virtue.

Each of these sermons, according to M. Zollikofer's usual practice, is introduced by an appropriate prayer.

ART. IV. *History of James Mitchell, a Boy born Blind and Deaf, with an Account of the Operation performed for the Recovery of his Sight.* By James Wardrop, F.R.S. Ed. 4to. pp. 52. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1813.

THE boy who forms the subject of this history was born almost totally blind and deaf, from some defect in the organs of sight and hearing; yet he appears to have possessed a due share of intellect. His case exhibits human nature under a novel aspect, and lays open a curious field for philosophical and metaphysical investigation. The two most remarkable points for observation are the method by which he was enabled to obtain ideas of the external world, and the extent of this knowledge. The great instrument which he employed was the touch; and this sense, it appears, had acquired that preternatural degree of acuteness, which the remaining senses always obtain when any of them are defective. He seems, however, to have made great use of his smell, and to have improved its powers to an astonishing degree:

'To the sense of smell, he seemed chiefly indebted for his knowledge of different persons. He appeared to know his relations and intimate friends by smelling them very slightly, and he at once detected strangers. It was difficult, however, to ascertain at what distance he could distinguish people by this sense; but, from what I was able to observe, he appeared to be able to do so at a considerable distance from the object. This was particularly striking, when a person entered the room, as he seemed to be aware of this before he could derive information from any other sense than that of smell.'

Many circumstances tend to prove that, notwithstanding his very limited means of acquiring information, the faculties of his mind were less deficient than they might have been supposed. He evinced clear indications of both recollection and judgment, displayed considerable curiosity, and made experiments on the objects

objects within his reach, as far as his limited means permitted him. Curiosity appears to have been one of the most striking traits in his character; and his chief occupation was to render himself minutely acquainted with every thing new that came before him. For many of his ideas and opinions it was wholly impossible to account, or to form any conjecture of the motives that guided and influenced his feelings. One of the most remarkable cases was the judgment that he exercised concerning strangers:

‘The opinions which he formed of individuals, and the means he employed to study their character, were extremely interesting. In doing this, he appeared to be chiefly influenced by the impressions communicated to him by his sense of smell. When a stranger approached him, he eagerly began to touch some part of his body, commonly taking hold of the arm, which he held near his nose, and, after two or three strong inspirations through the nostrils, he appeared to form a decided opinion regarding him. If this was favourable, he shewed a disposition to become more intimate, examined more minutely his dress, and expressed by his countenance more or less satisfaction: but if it happened to be unfavourable, he suddenly went off to a distance, with expressions of carelessness or of disgust.’

A still more remarkable quality, which displayed itself in a decided manner, was a love of finery; a taste for which it is very difficult to account in a person who was not only deprived of sight, but so nearly cut off from all intercourse with society, that we should have supposed him to be incapable of acquiring any of those complicated ideas on which our love of dress seems to depend.

Among the most interesting parts of the narrative, is an account of the means that were employed to promote this youth's communication with the members of his family:

‘With respect to the means which were employed to communicate to him information, and which he employed to communicate his desires and feelings to others, these were very ingenious and simple. His sister, under whose management he chiefly was, had contrived signs addressing his organs of touch, by which she could controul him, and regulate his conduct. On the other hand he, by his gestures, could express his wishes and desires. His sister employed various modes of holding his arm, and patting him on the head and shoulders, to express consent and different degrees of approbation. She signified *time* by shutting his eye-lids and putting down his head; which, done once, meant one night. He expressed his wish to go to-bed by reclining his head, distinguished me by touching his eyes, and many workmen by imitating their different employments. When he wished for food he pointed to his mouth, or to the place where provisions were usually kept.’

The violent struggles, which the boy made, prevented Mr. Wardrop from performing the operation of *intracranial*,

which he would otherwise have preferred; and, having secured his body by a mechanical contrivance, he *couched* the right eye, by which a very considerable degree of vision was obtained. This benefit has not, however, proved permanent; the opaque lens, instead of being absorbed, having again covered the pupil. The author relates an account of the effects which were apparently produced on young Mitchell by the acquisition of his new sense, and particularly the impressions that were made by external objects. The observations of Mr. Wardrop coincide with those of Cheselden in the main point:

‘He appeared well acquainted with the furniture of the room, having lived in it several days previous to the operation; and though, from placing things before him, he evidently distinguished and attempted to touch them, judging of their distances with tolerable accuracy, yet he seemed to trust little to the information given by the eye, and always turned away his head, while he carefully examined by his sense of touch the whole surfaces of the bodies presented to him.’

Our readers will be gratified by hearing that this extraordinary lad is now under the patronage of Professor Dugald Stewart, who is endeavouring to procure means for educating him, as well as for improving his sight by a second operation.

ART. V. *History of the Royal Society, from its Institution to the End of the 18th Century.* By Thomas Thomson, M.D., F.R.S. L. & E., &c. &c. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Baldwin. 1812.

THE powerful influence produced by the several scientific academies and societies, which have been successively formed in the different countries of Europe, and the distinguished rank which the Royal Society of London has held among these learned bodies, seem fully to justify the idea of making its origin and progress the subject of a distinct publication. Indeed, the members of which it is composed have participated so largely in the improvements that have been made for the last 150 years, in the various branches of natural knowledge, that to write a history of the Royal Society is almost to write a history of science during that period.

Dr. Thomson begins by giving a short sketch of the institution of the Society, the manner in which it was formed, the names of its original members, its presidents, secretaries, and other officers. The immediate object for which this body was constituted was the promotion of the physical sciences by experiment; and it is justly remarked that the period of its establishment was highly favourable for this purpose. Some of its first members were persons of peculiar activity and diligence, and

and contributed greatly both to its success and to the general diffusion of knowledge. The publication of *Transactions* was adopted soon after its commencement: they were originally compiled by the secretaries; and their value and importance depended not only on the papers or facts transmitted to the Society, but in part on the talents of the editor. Dr. Thomson therefore very properly gives an account of the successive secretaries, and of the volumes which they respectively edited. Our readers will all agree in the truth of the following remarks:

‘The only account of a literary society which can be at all valuable or interesting, is a detail of the efforts which they have made to increase the stock of knowledge, and to promote the various branches of science to which they have directed their attention. The result of these efforts is contained in the *Transactions* of the Royal Society. Our object therefore will be to take a comprehensive view of the contents of these volumes, and to lay before our readers the additions which the various sciences have received from the labours of this illustrious Society. Now as almost every man of science in the British empire, who has flourished since the original establishment of this Society, has been enrolled among its Fellows, our work will contain in fact a history of the progress of the sciences in Great Britain during the last 150 years. By comparing this progress with the present state of each science, we shall discover at a glance what portion of each originated in Britain, and what portion on the Continent. This comparative view cannot but be highly gratifying to a British reader. We are far from wishing to depreciate the merits of the illustrious philosophers on the Continent: they have been numerous and highly respectable. But owing no doubt to the superior advantages attending a free government, a much greater number of discoveries than ought to have fallen to our share, if we attend only to the comparative population of the different countries, have originated in Britain.’

The subjects treated in the *Transactions* are arranged under five heads, Natural History, Mathematics, Mechanical Philosophy, Chemistry, and Miscellaneous Articles. The plan which the author adopts is to begin by a concise history of each science previously to the establishment of the Royal Society, then to point out what additions it received from the labours of the members of that body, and to add short biographical notices of the most eminent among them, with a list of their papers. Natural History, which forms the first division, is subdivided into four heads; viz. Botany, Zoology, Mineralogy, and Geography with Topography. Botany is again subdivided into what may be called the nomenclature of plants, — to which the term botany is often exclusively applied, — and into the examination of the anatomy and physiology of vegetables. Dr. T. remarks that this second branch of the science, which is by far the most curious and important, ‘originated in Britain, and indeed took

its rise from the Royal Society ; and almost all the additions to it, even to our own times, have been made by the members of that illustrious body.' Agriculture, and an inquiry into the economical uses of plants, are considered as the third branch of botany.

In the first division of the science, we have a short view of the labours of the antients ; and of Gesner, Cæsalpinus, and the Bauhins among the moderns, who flourished before the establishment of the Royal Society. The greatest contributor to botanical science in the earlier volumes of the Transactions is Sir Hans Sloane, of whose life and literary labours a well written sketch is given. We have then short notices of Sherard, Dillenius, and Morrison ; and afterward a more ample account of Ray and Linné. The most important works of these naturalists are enumerated, with a general account of the additions which they made to the science. On the physiology of plants, the principal writers among the members of the Royal Society are Grew, Hales, and Gaertner ; of whose life and writings we are here supplied with just and appropriate reports. A direct history of the ingenious investigations of Mr. Knight unfortunately does not come within the author's plan ; the principal part of that gentleman's papers having been published since the year 1800, at which period the work terminates. The curious discoveries of Mrs. Ibbetson are also excluded. We have, however, an interesting abstract of the present state of our knowledge on this subject, drawn up in that clear and judicious manner for which Dr. Thomson's writings are so distinguished, when he treats on scientific topics. It contains a view of the uses of the different parts of plants and their functions, of the structure of seeds, the food of plants, the nature of their fluids, the motion of the sap, and the supposed property of vegetable irritability.

The science of Anatomy was cultivated with great ardour by some of the earlier members of the Royal Society ; and the papers in this department are among the most numerous in any of the branches that occupied their attention. The information which we derive from the Transactions on this subject is distributed under the heads of the bones, the muscles, the blood-vessels, the brain and nerves, and the absorbents. The following observations may enable us to learn how far the Royal Society has shared in advancing the knowledge of anatomy :

' The anatomical papers which occur in the Philosophical Transactions amount to 118. A considerable number of these relate to morbid anatomy, which, although they may be of considerable importance in a medical point of view, either as explaining the symptoms, or as suggesting a particular mode of treatment, yet they cannot

cannot with propriety be noticed here; because the details into which it would be requisite to enter, in order to point out the importance of the case, and the inferences which might be deduced from it, could be admitted only with propriety into a medical treatise. A considerable number of these papers, especially in the early volumes of the Transactions, are reviews and analyses of anatomical works published at the time, or historical details of anatomical controversies which have long ago lost all their interest. These circumstances reduce greatly the number of anatomical papers which it is proper to notice here.'

A list of 32 papers is then added, which the author regards as the most important anatomical dissertations contained in the Transactions.—Dr. T.'s section on Physiology is well composed. This science, indeed, is less indebted to the Royal Society than many of the collateral branches: the hypotheses of the earlier writers in the Transactions, on this branch, being little more than unfounded conjectures; and many of the late and more correct physiologists of the present day having given their works to the public through a different channel. Dr. Thomson's estimate of the respective merits of the systematic works on physiology deserves to be quoted:

'Boerhaave, Hoffman, Stahl, Cullen, Brown, Darwin, are the most distinguished names. The system of Boerhaave has lost all its defenders; but the opinions of Stahl, of Hoffman, as modified and altered by Cullen, and of Brown, are still adhered to by numerous sects. Darwin's system has not been so fortunate. His *Zoonomia* was published at an unlucky period; his opinions deviated too far from those of his contemporaries; and his knowledge of chemistry, upon which his theories chiefly depended, was too confined and inaccurate to attract much respect or confidence. The short-lived celebrity of his Botanic Garden, and the extravagant hypotheses which he advanced in various departments of the science, contributed likewise to injure the success of his system. The physiology of Haller is by far the most important work on the subject which has hitherto appeared, and indeed will not be easily surpassed by succeeding physiologists. I consider it as the most stupendous monument of industry which the eighteenth century produced. Instead of indulging, like most of his contemporaries and predecessors, in constructing an ingenious hypothesis to account for the functions of living bodies, Haller undertook the gigantic task of collecting all the *facts* relative to the subject, which had been ascertained.'

Of physiological papers in the Philosophical Transactions, the number is 220: but of these 81 are considered as of little value. The subjects of the remaining 139 are arranged under the following heads: the circulation, respiration, and action of the skin, nervous system, vision, organs of motion, digestion, and generation.—Medicine forms a long, but we think a less interesting article: many of the earlier medical papers are now

entirely superseded, and indeed they originally seem to have been rather below the average value. The present author, however, appears to have exercised considerable judgment in his selection; and he has accompanied them, as usual, with amusing and characteristic sketches of the writers.

Book II., which gives an account of the Mathematical department in the Philosophical Transactions, is very well executed, and may be considered as a particularly meritorious part of the work. The science itself is the most interesting that can occupy the human mind, and some of the truly illustrious members of the Royal Society have devoted a large share of their attention to its improvement. 'The papers on pure mathematics, in the Philosophical Transactions, amount to 208; and the writers on them are no fewer than 74.' The list of names, which is added in the notes, exhibits a most brilliant constellation of genius, and chiefly of British growth. — The order followed in this book is somewhat different from that which was adopted in the other parts of the volume. Instead of attempting a regular account of the papers, which would require too great a space, Dr. Thomson proposes to give 'a short historical sketch of the progress of mathematics, from their original invention, dwelling chiefly upon those improvements which have originated from members of the Royal Society; noticing some of the most important papers which have made their appearance in the Philosophical Transactions.' In pursuance of this plan, he offers an account of the progress of mathematics among the antient Greeks, the Alexandrians, and the Italians, at the revival of letters, and carries it down to the present age. The improvements made in the 17th century are arranged under separate heads; viz. algebraical notation, logarithms, the method of Galdin, as it is called, and that of indivisibles, the discoveries concerning the cycloid, the discoveries of Descartes and of Wallis, and Barrow's method of tangents, until at length we arrive at Newton; 'a man by the universal consent of all his successors, and of almost all his contemporaries, placed at the head of mathematics and of science, and allowed to be the most splendid genius that has yet adorned human nature. The memoir and philosophical labours of Newton are detailed more at large, as their importance so justly demands. The events of his life, the development of his amazing genius, the discoveries which he made in science, and the honours which he obtained, all form most interesting materials for the biographical sketch, and, at the same time, excite a very favourable idea of the information and judgment of the author. His account of the *moral* character of this extraordinary man, although less immediately connected with the subject of this work

work than his *philosophical* acquirements, will perhaps be not less interesting to many of our readers :

‘ Notwithstanding the extraordinary honours that were paid him, he had so humble an opinion of himself, that he had no relish for the applause which he received. He was so little vain and desirous of glory from any of his works, that he would have let others run away with the glory of those inventions which have done so much honour to human nature, if his friends and countrymen had not been more jealous than he was of his own glory, and the honour of his country. He was exceedingly courteous and affable, even to the lowest, and never despised any man for want of capacity ; but always expressed freely his resentment against any immorality or impiety. He not only showed a great and constant regard to religion in general, as well by an exemplary life as in all his writings, but was also a firm believer of revealed religion ; as appears by the many papers which he left behind him on the subject. But his notion of the Christian religion was not founded on a narrow bottom, nor his charity and morality so scanty, as to show a coldness to those who thought otherwise than he did in matters indifferent : much less to admit of persecution, of which he always expressed the strongest abhorrence and detestation. He had such a mildness of temper that a melancholy story would often draw tears from him, and he was exceedingly shocked at any act of cruelty to man or beast ; mercy to both being the topic that he loved to dwell upon. An innate modesty and simplicity showed itself in all his actions and expressions. His whole life was one continued series of labour, patience, charity, generosity, temperance, piety, goodness, and all other virtues, without a mixture of any known vice whatsoever.’

Dr. T. has judged it necessary to enter at considerable length into the controversy between Newton and Leibnitz, which once occupied so much of the attention of the philosophical world. As the historian of the Royal Society, it might be proper for him to do this ; yet we conceive that few minds exist in the present day, capable of conviction, which will not fully admit the claims of our countryman. To those, however, who may feel an interest in the question, we recommend the perusal of Dr. Thomson's remarks and conclusions, as being candid and judicious.

Our limits will not permit us to offer any detail of the Third Book, which treats on the sciences of what the author terms Mechanical Philosophy ; consisting of those classes of phænomena which are produced by motions so considerable as to be visible to our senses, in opposition to chemistry, which depends on the imperceptible motions of the particles of bodies. Under mechanical philosophy, he includes the following departments ; astronomy, optics, dynamics, or the theory of moving bodies, mechanics, hydrodynamics, acoustics, navigation, electricity, and magnetism. The chapter on astronomy is, we think,

peculiarly excellent; while that on electricity seems to be scarcely equal to some other parts of the performance.

Chemistry is now become a science of the first magnitude; and many of its most assiduous cultivators have been members of the Royal Society, and contributors to the Transactions. At the same time, it must be acknowledged that, in this science, the English have been more nearly outstripped by their continental neighbours than perhaps in any other department. This portion of the present work is one with which Dr. Thomson is of course perfectly familiar, and in which his only labour would be that of selection. Some of the best parts of the account of chemistry are the biographical notices with which it is interspersed; and among the most interesting are those of Priestley, Bergman, Scheele, and Lavoisier. We shall quote the remarks on Dr. Priestley's character, and the comparative view of Bergman and Scheele:

Dr. Priestley, who began his chemical career a few years later than Mr. Cavendish, was as rapid and precipitate, as the latter was cautious and slow. But from his splendid talents and happy turn of mind, he contributed no less essentially to the progress of the science, and certainly more than any other British philosopher of his time to its popularity. No man ever entered upon the study of chemistry with more disadvantages than Dr. Priestley, and yet few men have occupied a more dignified station in it, or contributed a greater number of new and important facts. He was an obscure dissenting clergyman, struggling with a very limited income, unsuccessful as a preacher from a defect in his voice, unacceptable to his hearers on account of his theological opinions, which involved him in almost perpetual controversy, loaded with a family, ignorant of chemistry, unacquainted with the necessary apparatus, and so situated that he could not conveniently procure information. These circumstances in his situation, which seemed to present an insurmountable bar to his entering upon experimental investigations, were probably in a great measure the causes of his splendid success. The career which he selected was new, and he entered upon it free from those prejudices which warped the mind, and limited the views of those who had been regularly bred to the science. His invention was set to work to contrive new and appropriate and cheap instruments of investigation. His profession ensured his temperance and sobriety, his family and limited income stimulated his activity, while his controversial discussions kept up his spirits, and inflamed his vanity and love of celebrity. Add to all this a facility of expressing himself, and of writing, which he had acquired by the practice of teaching, and of early composition; an activity of mind, and an ardour of curiosity which it was impossible to damp; a sagacity capable of overcoming every obstacle; and a turn for observation which enabled him to profit by all the phenomena that presented themselves to his view. His habits of regularity were such that every thing was registered as soon as observed. He was perfectly

perfectly sincere and unaffected, and the discovery of truth seems in every case to have been his real and undisguised object.'—

'Scheele and Bergman cannot well be compared together. Their zeal indeed for the science, their candour, their love of truth, and their industry, were equal: but Bergman was distinguished by the extent of his views, and by the plans which he formed for the general improvement of the science; Scheele, by the skill with which he conducted particular analyses, and the acuteness with which he distinguished substances by their properties. Bergman's views were general; Scheele's were particular. Bergman was the man for drawing the outline; but Scheele understood best how to fill it up. On one occasion, indeed, I mean in his treatise *on fire*, Scheele attempted the very difficult and general subject of combustion; but his attempt was not crowned with success. However, the acuteness with which he treated it deserves our admiration; and the vast number of new and important facts, which he brought forward in support of his hypothesis, is truly astonishing, and perhaps could not have been brought together by any other man than Scheele. He discovered oxygen gas and ascertained the composition of the atmosphere, without any knowledge of what had been previously done by Priestley. His views respecting the nature of atmospheric air were much more correct than those of Priestley; and his experiments on vegetation and respiration, founded on these views, possessed considerable value.'

We must now bring our observations to a close; apprehending that we have allotted a sufficient space to the examination of this work, and believing that our readers are already so far in possession of our sentiments concerning it, that we need scarcely add that it evinces distinguished merit, and is both entertaining and instructive. The author has accomplished the object of his labours in a very respectable manner, and at the same time has given decisive evidence of the extent of his own acquirements: thus proving himself a worthy member and a worthy historian of this most valuable Society.

This volume is adapted to serve as a companion to the "Abridgment of the Philosophical Transactions," which we formerly announced, and of which we intend soon to take farther notice.

ART. VI. *Continental Excursions; or Tours into France, Switzerland, and Germany, in 1782, 1787, and 1789. With a Description of Paris and the Glaciers of Savoy, Observations upon the Dispositions of the French, &c.* By the Rev. Thomas Pennington, M.A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Rivingtons.

THE Continent has been so little visited by our countrymen during the long period of the present war, and particularly since the anti-commercial edicts of 1807, that we are induced to notice reports of journeys which, in a wider field of competition,

tion, might scarcely have attracted our attention. Mr. Pennington has no great pretensions to rank among travellers of observation, and still less among elegant writers; and his tours, from the remoteness of their date, are without any claim to the charm of novelty. We are apprized in the preface that the publication of the present volumes, though at a period so much subsequent to the time of travelling, has been owing to the extraordinary change on the Continent since the French Revolution, and to the consideration that it might not be wholly uninteresting to compare the past with the existing state of the countries described. Another reason, and one which with us is of greater weight, is the assurance that the author related nothing but what he actually saw; a declaration that is confirmed by the uniform tenor of the book, in which, contrary to common practice, the chief fault consists in too much brevity of description.

Mr. Pennington's journeys, or 'Excursions,' were three in number. The first was performed in the spring of 1782, when he travelled over the Austrian Netherlands, passed some months at Amiens in the study of French, and, after having visited Paris, returned in the end of the year to England. The second took place in Autumn, 1787, and was achieved with greater rapidity, since he proceeded through France to Geneva, and returned by the banks of the Rhine and the Low-Countries, in the short space of two months. The third was executed in 1789, and occupied five months. It led Mr. P. nearly over the same ground; a repetition which seemed surprising, till we discovered that he had by this time become a married man, and derived his chief gratification from exhibiting the "wonders of the land" to his fair companion. Indeed, we have seldom met in our travels, either among men or among books, with a more attentive husband. He missed no opportunity of shewing his wife all that was worth observation; and, considering his usual brevity, he is wonderfully complaisant to the public in communicating her remarks. Lest our readers, however, should be so deficient in gallantry as to slight the comments of a young female, we shall kindly keep them out of hazard, and make our extracts from those passages in which Mr. P. gives an account of his own observations. We begin with his first excursion, when he landed at Ostend in March 1782, and proceeded thence into the interior:

'*Low-Countries.* — We set off at half past two in the afternoon from Ostend, in an English coach with six tolerable horses. —

'We got to Menin at twelve at night, which is thirty-nine miles from Ostend, there we could not procure any thing for supper but

an omelet and bread and butter, which too we were much troubled to get, as they were all in bed.* —

‘ There was a great sameness in the road which we came, long views and a dead flat, and a row of trees on each side. This is the case almost all through Flanders. There are crucifixes fixed on trees, boards, &c. almost at every mile, which they call *bons Dieux*, for the Flemish are more bigotted than the French, and it is astonishing to see the devotion with which my fellow-travellers (in the midst of their conversation and droll stories which they related to each other) pulled off their hats to them.’ —

‘ *Lisle* — Is situated in a dead flat, as all the towns of Flanders are, and almost among the marshes. There are few cities which can vie with *Lisle* for regularity of buildings, breadth of streets, populousness, liveliness, &c. insomuch that it has justly acquired the name of *petit Paris*. It is about four miles in circumference, but quite round the fortifications, they tell you, it is above eight, but I do not think it so much.’ — ‘ The Rue des Malades and Rue Royale are the best streets; the latter is three-quarters of a mile in length, and reckoned the finest street in France, but it is a very dull one. —

‘ I am sorry to say, that one is often obliged to beware of one's countrymen in these towns near the coast; as too often the worst sort takes refuge in them, so that it is much better for a traveller to associate as much as possible with the French, than with them. The French, to do them justice, are very fond of conversing with the English. — So far from laughing at you, when you pronounce their language wrong, they are happy to set you right; for they are always much gratified by travellers coming amongst them.’ —

‘ I received several invitations to dine with the Dominicans or Jacobins, who seem to live very comfortably. —

‘ Of the seventeen convents of women, ten only are close ones, the other seven are called open ones. The business of the nuns in these is, chiefly, to tend the sick. —

‘ Whether the austere life they lead affects their looks, I know not, but it is generally observed, and I found the observation true, that there is hardly a pretty woman among them.

‘ I went to the Ursulines to see Mere Eleanor, an Irish girl, reckoned very pretty, but I was much disappointed; indeed the dress of the nuns is very unbecoming, particularly the head-dress.’ —

‘ I have heard from friends who have been educated in a convent, that nothing can be more insipid or wearisome than a conventual life. Mattins, Vespers, sauntering about within the same dull walls, and doing some needle-work, fill up the heavy hours.’ —

‘ *St. Omer*. — The walk round *St. Omer* on the ramparts is very pretty but the town itself is dull, notwithstanding the great resort of strangers, especially English, as it is so near the coast. It is only eight leagues from Calais, and a barge or passage-boat comes by the canal every day.’ It is fifty miles from *Lisle*.’ —

* * Here I was first sensible of the luxury of an English chamber, as I slept in a cold bricked room, which was not very comfortable, contrasted with a carpeted room; and the night was cold and snowy.’

‘ I am

' I am at a boarding-house, where most of the English go, kept by a blind man named Jean Petit. It is astonishingly reasonable : we only pay twelve livres or ten shillings a-week for our board, finding our own breakfast and wine, and we have two good rooms each. — I stayed a day longer at St. Omer, to go to the plains of Agincourt, six long leagues from St. Omer, in the road to Abbeville, &c. —

' Agincourt, or rather Azincourt, after the castle of which the battle was named, is two miles from Fruges. It is a large plain, and at some distance is the village, where I went to call on the Curé, who lived in a small thatched house, but he was unfortunately not at home ; however, a man who had occasionally shewn the lions accompanied me.

' I saw Maisoncelle, and the other villages, which the historians speak of. The position of the army seems to have been admirable, as the small one of Henry had full scope, whereas the other, from its vast superiority, had not room. I smiled at the guide's shewing me the place where the King stood, and where he said, that he fought *en diable*.

' A chapel is built, in which were buried the French who were slain, and masses are said for their souls.

' The castle which gave name to the battle, is now changed into a barn.' —

' *Ghent* — Is the capital of Flanders, and there are few finer cities in Europe ; the streets are broad and regular, and the houses lofty and well built ; but, as in the rest of the cities of Flanders, there is a striking air of dullness in it ; and it is so thin of inhabitants, that grass grows in many of the streets.

' This city is said to be more extensive than Paris without its suburbs ; and Charles Quint used to say, that he could put Paris in his *gand*.' —

' We left Ghent for Bruges at nine in the morning. This barge is reckoned the most elegant in Europe ; there are three prices for the passage ; the first of which is only fifteen-pence, and for this, you are in the state-room, which is elegantly fitted up, with carpets, curtains, &c. ; at twelve exactly the dinner is ready, consisting of two courses and a dessert ; for this you pay also fifteen-pence ; besides wine, which they have on board, of every quality and price : there is music whilst you dine, and you are certain of having the best company, as this conveyance is so pleasant and agreeable, that many people go by it in preference to any other, and have their servants and horses meet them at Bruges, so that the vessel is crowded every day ; there is another room for inferior people, and some are on deck, on which is an elegant canopy, to protect them from the weather. The most disagreeable part of this conveyance is the slowness with which you go, hardly four miles an hour. —

' Bruges is a very large old city, about five miles in circumference ; it was formerly extremely populous, and the mart of almost all Europe, but is now much gone to decay. There is a very fine bason, capable of containing vessels that draw fifteen feet water ; for the canal, which goes from hence to Ostend, is sixteen feet deep in general, and it is very curious to see, so far inland, vessels of all nations assembled together of so large a size.' —

' Austrian

! Austrian Flanders, is a rich and plentiful country, abounding in all the comforts of life. Although in travelling through it, the eye may not be gratified with pleasing views, yet the mind cannot help feeling satisfaction in reflecting on the comfort of its inhabitants. There is, I suppose, no space of seventy miles in Europe, in which are to be found four such large cities as Louvain, Bruxelles, Ghent, and Bruges; in one of which is a celebrated university, and the other, one of the most elegant little courts in Europe.

‘The two last are episcopal sees and wealthy cities; and all of them are fine towns, and in each of them will the traveller find things worthy his attention.’

The city of Amiens is, as we remarked in our review of Mr. Pinkney's Travels, (Vol. lxvi. p. 4.) a favourite residence with our countrymen; and Mr. Pennington does not fall short of that traveller in his encomium on the beauty of its situation. The place, he says, is nearly three miles in circumference; and, in the part called the Upper Town, the streets are much broader and pleasanter than we generally find them in French towns. Nothing can be finer than the walks on the ramparts, among meadows and gardens, while the Somme rolls along with its clear and rapid current. — The good breeding of the French, and the overflow of joy with which they welcomed an Englishman on the cessation of war, made a powerful impression on Mr. P. ‘Next to my own country,’ he says; (Vol. i. p. 243.) ‘France must be the pleasantest of any in Europe.’ He founds this opinion on the solid recommendations of fertility of soil, salubrity of climate, cheapness of living, and the general gaiety and affability of the inhabitants. He mentions (Vol. ii. p. 77.) an anecdote of stepping into a courtyard, where several small carriages were standing, under the impression that they were to be let. On inquiry, he found that they were the property of a private gentleman; who, however, on coming up, offered Mr. P. the use of one of them, and a horse, for several stages. Such an offer on the part of a perfect stranger must appear, says the author, so odd to an English reader, as to require a special assurance of its reality. His impartiality, however, is beyond suspicion; since, while he does this justice to the kind disposition of the majority of the French nation, he animadverts, in the preceding pages, on the danger of imposition from individuals of a different character. A French shop-keeper is seldom ashamed to ask twice as much as he will be contented to take; and, in the smaller country-inns, it is indispensable to agree before hand on the price of a meal or a lodging. The bill will otherwise be exorbitant, and the petty magistrate of the place has no ears for the complaint of a stranger against a townsman. Neither must an Englishman expect any accom-

accommodations out of Paris, fit to be compared with the comforts of our provincial towns. Those among our countrymen who have philosophy enough to find a compensation for personal inconvenience, in the consoling thought that French manufactures are so greatly behind ours as to offer very little prospect of rivalry, may have, in travelling through France, many opportunities of indulging such reflections.

‘At Amiens,’ says Mr. P., ‘I had a curious instance how much our neighbours are behind us in useful things. Happening to want a shaving brush, I sent out for one, and they brought me what more resembled a clothes brush than any thing else; so that I was obliged to be shaved *à la Française*, or have a long beard like a Jewish Rabbi.—I could not help making a comparison between the mechanic arts in the two countries so near each other.’

In the journey of 1789, the author approached the neighbourhood of Geneva from the Lyons road, and was highly gratified with the beauty of the scenery.

‘From Nantua to Chatillon the road is so beautiful, that we got out of the chaise to admire it; it runs through a chain of mountains; with a lake running along it, shut in by mountains on one side, and the road at a vast height over it, on the other; several cascades also fall into it from the mountains: this stage was delightful.’—

‘About a league from Chatillon we left the carriage, which was going up a steep hill, and crossed over a small wooden-bridge, called Pont Lucelle, into Savoy; and I would advise every traveller to do the same, as he will be well paid for his curiosity. On this bridge are roughly painted the arms of the two sovereigns, and under it the Rhone runs like a torrent, amidst large rocks and stones, which frequently form natural cascades. This wonderful river is here not above six or seven feet in breadth, and the depth of it is amazing. This vast body of water, after having for some time run in this manner among rocks, passes at last through a hole not more than a foot and a half in breadth, and is for a little while entirely lost among the rocks; upon which you may pass over to the other side without wetting your feet; the depth of this hole has never been ascertained. This spot is romantic to the greatest degree: in winter, when the river is swollen by rain falling down from the mountains, the noise of it rushing along may be heard at a great distance.’—

‘Geneva—Is not a very large, but a handsome city, built on a steep hill, with the lake at the bottom; along which there is one of the principal streets. The houses are built of stone, and handsome; and the streets are spacious and remarkably clean: the floors in the houses are in general of wood, and very clean; which is what we have not been for some time used to. From the beauty of the situation of Geneva, the civility of its inhabitants, their neatness, and the abundance and goodness of provisions, few places have greater attractions for foreigners than this. There are in general a great many of our countrymen here, and we see English horses, phaetons, &c. in almost every street; the environs are delightful, and the public walks shaded

shaded with fine chesnut trees; the mountains all round covered with snow (in May) form a fine contrast with the verdure of the gardens and meadows that surround the town.'—

'The dress and manners of the Genevese bear much more resemblance to the English than the French.'

'The Rhone is here divided into two branches, after coming out of the lake; the water of it is so clear that it looks quite blue, and is very rapid.

'Part of the town is so old, that there are high wooden arcades; which, when it is hot, are very pleasant to walk under; as you are protected from the heat of the sun by them.

'The lake is about a mile in breadth at Geneva; but farther on it is eight or nine, it is in length about thirty miles; its depth varies very much.'—

'*Lausanne.*—We left Geneva with regret, as, out of England, there is no place I should like to pass some time in so well; the country is pleasant, the climate temperate and healthy.—Lausanne is a large old town, beautifully situated on a high hill, which makes the walking in it very disagreeable, as the continual ascent and descent are very fatiguing; the pavement is very bad; but the situation of it with hanging gardens round it, makes amends for those inconveniences; it is called ten leagues, but is twelve from Geneva.'

'The beauty of the situation of Lausanne, added to the sociability and politeness of its inhabitants, make it a most desirable residence for strangers; of whom there are always many.'

'The Swiss, among other good qualities, have sincerity, honesty, fidelity, &c.; and have also some bad ones; they are apt to drink too much, and are very obstinate. These qualities they have in common with the Germans, as they were formerly a part of them. Many of the houses in this country have turrets to them, covered with tin; which like the steeples of the churches, when glittering in the sun, have a pleasing appearance.

'The houses are very neat, and though you may not find in them the luxuries of life, you may, at least, all the conveniences of it.'

'*Berne.*—The entrance to Berne is very handsome, and its fine appearance strikes a stranger much.

'It is built of clear stone, with piazzas. The public buildings are also very fine, and there are noble fountains in the streets; as in all the towns of Switzerland almost. The country about it is also beautiful; as I fortunately found a very good coach setting off for Basle, this was an opportunity not to be slighted; as in this country, which is not like England, these conveyances are not often met with; though, I must say, I went with reluctance, as a stranger ought to stay some days at Berne to see all which is in that celebrated city.'

'*Basle.*—Is a very large old dull heavy-looking town; and on just quitting Berne the contrast is very remarkable. It is famous for the residence of the great Erasmus, who was born at Rotterdam, and

'The chief manufacture at Geneva is that of watches and chains, which are brought to great perfection.'

was the ornament of the age in which he lived. The beauty of the country ceases at Basle; and we were obliged to lower our ideas, and be contented without mountains, lakes, &c. &c. which I had just quitted.

'The Rhine is here both broad and rapid. Both at Berne and Basle, German is more spoken than French; though I have hitherto done pretty well with the latter language. I am at an inn beautifully situated, looking on the Rhine, *les Trois Rois*.'

At this epoch of revolutionary phrenzy, the predilection of the French nation was wholly fixed on M. Necker, and all conversations at Paris seemed to begin and end with him. Almost every shop was adorned with a print of this admired minister, and scarcely a snuff-box was on sale without his portrait. The royal family was wholly out of favour at Paris; with the exception, however, of the King, whose purity of intention was uniformly admitted. The National Assembly were modelling the new constitution, after the example of ours; and the regard which the French are always disposed to feel for us, when not misled by their government, had now risen to the height of fervent admiration. Yet, amid all these serious concerns, no interruption was given to the ordinary course of pleasure. The Parisian theatres, amounting to the number of twenty, were almost always full; and in private circles the hours passed away in song and dance, with as little solicitude as if the government and the country had been in the most settled state. — Mr. P., however, felt less relish for pleasures of this kind than for the beauties of nature; and accordingly, avoiding Paris, he conducted home the fair partner of his travels by *Swisserland* and the Rhine. Proceeding by land through Strasburg, Mannheim, and Frankfort, they took their passage by water from Mentz to Cologne.

'The passage-boats are, as nearly as I can guess, twelve or fourteen feet in length, and three or four in breadth; they are very convenient, and have canvas-coverings, which you take off or not, according to the weather; they seldom put up sails in these light vessels excepting when the wind is gentle, and quite fair. In general they rowed us about four miles an hour, as we had the stream for us, which however is not by any means here rapid. We had twelve or fourteen passengers.'—

'Six leagues from Mentz is Bingen, a small town, where we staid all night; hitherto the banks of the river had been flat and not very interesting; but at Bingen the hills and rocks began. We left this place early in the morning, and soon passed the only dangerous part of the river; this is a strait hemmed in between two rocks; the stream here is very rapid, and there is a kind of whirlpool.'—

'On each side now are steep hills, and rocks covered with vineyards growing up to their very summits; and castles, towns, and villages beautifully situated on the borders of the river; the whole is inexpressibly beautiful; the river is here about half a mile over. A little farther

is Bacraa, (Bacharach,) a small town in a most romantic situation, at the foot of a mountain, and almost over against it Coube, a little village with a fortress overlooking it, in which there is a garrison.—

‘Coblentz is situated at the confluence of the Rhine and Moselle, so famous for wine made on its banks, which bears its name.

‘Two leagues from Coblentz, we passed by a village in which is a society of Moravians; and where is a very good house belonging to the Prince de Nevitte: just by, is one also, which did not seem to have been inhabited some years, and on my enquiring the reason, I found, that it was reported to be haunted, and is called the Devil’s House: If I had an inclination to settle in this country, I should not have been sorry to have displaced his devilship; as he has had taste enough to chuse a very pretty habitation.

‘Near this, we passed by a hermit’s cottage very finely situated; hermits are very frequent in this part of the country; they wear very long beards and a kind of black stuff gown, and beg in the towns and villages; I generally observed that the good men had an excellent choice in the situation of their cells.’—

‘From Bonne to Cologne the face of the country is totally changed, and the banks of the river are flat and sandy. We arrived at Cologne in the morning; and thus finished our delightful voyage. From Bingen to Bonne, which is about fifty miles, nothing can be imagined finer, or more picturesque than the views; the river winds constantly between high rocks, only interrupted by towns and villages; these are so frequent, that there are hardly two or three miles without them; and often, you have only to cross the river from one to another. In these villages, however small, you are certain of meeting with several inns, or neat alehouses, in which the passengers disperse themselves for the night; but this route is so much gone, that they are all very dear; and the usual charge for a bed, is a florin, (2s.) and the same for a dinner for each person.—

‘The landlords, like the rest of the low Germans, are very brutal and impertinent; and it is in vain for you to object to any article of their bills; so that the best way is, as in France, to make an agreement for every thing.’

Unluckily, the society on board of these vessels does not altogether harmonize with the beauty of the surrounding scenery:

‘I arrived at Cologne heartily tired with the incessant smoking, and other dirty tricks of my *compagnions du voyage*. Added to this, only one could speak French; and when I put several questions to him, about the country places, &c. taking his pipe out of his mouth, with the most provoking phlegm, he constantly answered “*Mais Monsieur, c’est ce que j’ignore*,” when I was on the very tiptoe of expectation. From Cologne I went in the diligence to Aix la Chapelle, where I had nearly been laid up with illness; as on coming in hot and dusty and tired, I plunged into the hot bath. It had the same temporary effect with me as with Alexander the Great, when plunging into the river Cydnus; with this difference, that I recovered the next morning, and it shall make me more cautious for the future. Almost all the inns at Aix have baths in them.’

‘*Spa*—Is beautifully situated in a romantic valley with rocks hanging over it : in hot weather it must be very fatiguing to climb up the high and steep hills, with which it is almost surrounded ; even at this time of the year we have been not a little tired with our mountainous walks. The town is small, but the streets are broad, regular, and remarkably clean ; owing to the pavement, which, though not of broad stone, is so even, that after the hardest rain, you may walk out in an hour or two, without any inconvenience arising from the dirt.’—

‘ The celebrated mineral waters are near a league distant ; though there are some in the heart of the town. In all parts of it are shops with various kinds of boxes, on the outside of which are beautiful views of *Spa* and the environs.—

‘ It is *vastly* pretty every morning, to see company go to drink the waters ; some on horseback, others in various kinds of carriages, of all nations. They keep very early hours, and it is not uncommon to see them out on an airing, in the beautiful environs, at seven in the morning.

‘ Autumn is the full season, and people come from *Aix* to *Spa*, as that is earlier. It is, however, very disgusting to see the *quantity* of beggars, and loathsome objects, which are suffered to infest this charming place ; so that it is really painful to walk about the town. We have very good dinners from the *traiteur* at half a crown a head, dressed in the English way.’

We must now proceed to the less pleasant task of animadverting on the imperfections which detract from the merit of these volumes. It is rather strange that, after Mr. P. had kept back his letters from the public for more than twice the ample period recommended by Horace, they should still be brought forwards in a very incorrect shape. The punctuation is inaccurate throughout ; and it is an unlucky specimen of typographical care to introduce (Vol. ii. p. 8.) the ‘canton of Berlin’ for the canton of Berne. For another mistake, that of dating (Vol. ii. p. 44.) the battle of Oudenarde in 1693, instead of 1708, the printer, we apprehend, is not responsible. Mr. P. makes no pretensions to the character of a politician ; and indeed his studies in this science appear to be as yet in their infancy. Let us take for example his remarks on the towns of Dunkirk and Liege. These places, we know, are both populous ; the former appearing by a late survey to contain 22,000 inhabitants, and the latter, 50,000, but Mr. P. goes greatly beyond these computations ; and while he sets down Dunkirk (Vol. i. p. 229.) at a population of 60,000, he boldly carries Liege (Vol. ii. p. 276.) to the number of 100,000. His language, too, besides being inelegant and even vulgar, is sometimes as incomprehensible as his arithmetic. What is a reader of plain understanding to conclude from the following remark (Vol. i. p. 131.) on the Paris *fiacres*, or hackney-coaches ? ‘The fares of these *fiacres* are much the same as of the London hackney-coaches, but the English ones are much dearer.’

These

These letters were written at an early period of life : but the lapse of years does not seem to improve Mr. P. either in depth of reflection or in the graces of composition, for the notes are evidently of late date, and in no part of the work does the author appear to less advantage. They frequently contain superfluous notices of well known facts ; and, as a specimen of the carelessness of style, we may take (Vol. ii. p. 216.) the short annotation on Strasburg : 'The Jews, *which* are very numerous here, live in a distinct quarter.'

The faults which we have pointed out are, in general, the consequence of haste and inattention. Mr. Pennington travelled with great dispatch, and he seems to have written with still greater speed. Contrary to the usual feeling of travellers, he appears perpetually afraid of falling into prolixity, and renders his reports so brief as seldom to present a clear or accurate picture. All these deductions press heavily on the character of his work, and necessarily bring it down to the level of a second-rate production. Lower than this, however, it would be unfair to estimate it ; for it is due to the author to recollect that he introduces no fictitious description, and is no dealer in exaggerated assertion.

ART. VII. *Memoirs of the Life, Writings, and Correspondence of William Smellie, F.R.S. & F.A.S.*, late Printer in Edinburgh, Secretary and Superintendant of Natural History to the Society of Scottish Antiquaries. By Robert Kerr, F.R.S. & F.A.S. Ed. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 992. 11. 7s. Boards. Anderson, Edinburgh ; Longman and Co. London. 1811.

IN entering on an examination of the present work, our attention is naturally recalled to the plan pursued (see M.R. Vol. lxi. p. 85.) by the late Lord Woodhouselee in his account of Lord Kaimes. Indeed, Mr. Kerr is an acknowledged imitator of Lord W., and, like him, makes a biographical memoir a vehicle for the communication of a large portion of cotemporary anecdote. In contrasting this mode with the bold and fastidious narratives of Scottish literature which were given several years ago to the public by an eminent professor, we can scarcely hesitate in pronouncing that the copious and familiar method is the more suitable to the unambitious object of biography. So far, therefore, we are agreed with the present author : but if, in the case of Lord Woodhouselee, we found it necessary to declare that the happy medium had been overstepped, and an undue share of detail introduced, much more do we find it incumbent on us to record a similar complaint against the biographer of Mr. Smellie. The former, though very diffuse, is

never vulgar: but Mr. Kerr, besides transgressing all due limits in the publication of second-rate-materials, and private correspondence, has permitted the insertion of several matters of too homely a cast for general perusal. That he is a native of North Britain is apparent as well from the frequent occurrence of Scotisms, as from the interest which he takes it for granted will be shewn by the public in the local transactions of Edinburgh. Such writers should remember that the inhabitants of the southern part of the island, among whom they probably expect to find their chief readers, neither regard with extraordinary favour the *quondam* habits of the Scottish metropolis, nor possess that knowledge of individual character which is necessary to create an interest in provincial detail. The claim of Mr. Kerr's book to our notice rests accordingly on that portion of its contents which relates to literature at large, and to men of general notoriety in the world of letters; and this limitation we shall be careful to keep in view, in the report which we proceed to give of the information here communicated.

William Smellie was born in 1740, in one of the suburbs of Edinburgh. His father was a builder in limited circumstances, but classically educated; in consequence of which, as well as of the general custom of that part of the country, young Smellie, though destined to a mechanical profession, was sent in the first instance to a Latin school. Having acquired some knowledge of that language, he was apprenticed at the early age of twelve to a printer, and, like Franklin, soon became remarkably accurate and expeditious in the operative part of the business. When only seventeen years old, he was made corrector of the press, and received a weekly allowance of ten shillings, (equivalent to thirty shillings at the present day,) out of which he both supported himself and aided in the maintenance of poor relations. Always actuated by a thirst for improvement, he found means, in the midst of these early labours, to attend yearly the college-classes, both to gratify a taste for general literature, and more particularly for the purpose of studying medicine. The medical classes in Edinburgh are often attended by young men who do not eventually follow the profession; one cause of which is the compact situation of the town and the central position of the college, so that persons are enabled to hear lectures and return to their occupations without much encroachment on their time.

The pleasure attendant on a course of study could not fail to offer to an inquisitive mind a remarkable contrast to the dry routine of a printing-office. In Edinburgh, a great part of the printing consists of tedious law-papers; it being the custom to print and deliver to the judges, for the purpose of studying at home,

home, not only the depositions of witnesses and the arguments of counsel, but all collateral documents. This expensive practice is said to have originated under the English judges who were appointed by Cromwell, and who were utterly unable to comprehend the Scotch dialect of those days in the mouth of a rapid speaker. Like other customs in which a body of individuals find their own interest advanced, it has been continued after the necessity was past; and it is at present computed that 90,000 quarto pages are annually printed in this way at Edinburgh. We cannot wonder that Smellie, after having tasted the pleasure of study, should be desirous of exchanging the revision of these barren masses for a more instructive pursuit; and we find him accordingly hesitating for several years between the prosecution of his business as a printer, and the relinquishment of it for the profession of medicine or the church. Some of his juvenile companions, and particularly the well known Dr. Buchan, exhorted him to give up printing: but an attachment to connections already formed, and the pressure of his circumstances, aggravated by a marriage at the early age of twenty-three, presented insuperable obstacles. Dr. Buchan being a character of considerable notoriety, we shall make some extracts from the correspondence of these young friends:

‘Dr. William Buchan,’ says Mr. Kerr, ‘was born at Ancram, in the shire of Roxburgh, in 1739. He was educated at Edinburgh with a view to entering into the ministry of the church of Scotland; but changed his purpose, and devoted himself to the study of medicine. After finishing his academical studies, and having received the diploma of doctor, he settled at Ackworth in Yorkshire, where he became physician to a foundling hospital.’—

‘The correspondence between Dr. Buchan and Mr. Smellie appears to have commenced about the year 1759 or 1760. Like most of the letters and papers found in the repositories of Mr. Smellie, the dates of the letters are generally deficient, which precludes the possibility of arranging them in any certain order.—The first letter of the following series, but which evidently alludes to a former correspondence on the subject, proposes that Mr. Smellie should devote himself to the study of medicine.’—

‘Dear Smellie.

No date.

‘The only scheme that I can put you upon, or assist you in, is as follows. Get as much knowledge picked up at Edinburgh this winter as possible, and hold yourself in readiness to come up along with me about the end of May next; and you shall be welcome to live with me until you learn pharmacy, and see as much practice as to be able to set up for yourself. If you make yourself very useful to me, you shall be upon the same footing with Mr. Rutherford; viz. bed, board, washing, &c. free: and if you don’t choose to serve

me in that capacity, which, indeed, will only be *serving yourself*, you shall have all these things upon the most reasonable terms in my house; and I will trust you for payment until you shall be in a capacity. This, in one word, is the scheme, and I would have you consider of it.*

Smellie's answer:

'Dear Sir,

No date.

'As I hate cramming letters with compliment and apology, I shall here, without ceremony, communicate to you my naked thoughts concerning the generous scheme you propose.

'I begin with a description of my present situation. Two months after you left this place, I had an offer of 4*l.* a-year to correct for Messrs. Murray and Cochrane, which I accepted, and am engaged for twelve months, beginning 22d November 1759; but I am by no means confined, and have more opportunities of reading now than ever I had.

'Had this agreeable scheme been proposed two months sooner, nothing could have gratified my wishes more. But Monro is far on with his subject; and I cannot think of entering in the middle of a session. I long much to hear a particular detail of your proposal.'—

'P. S.—Pray write me soon. If this affair does not succeed, I wish from my heart it had never been spoken of; for it has touched one of my quickest senses, and excited that passionate desire which has always possessed my breast; viz. to have study for my constant employment, especially the study of nature in all her various operations, and the study of physic appears to be the only cure for this my painful distemper.'

'Dr. WILLIAM BUCHAN to Mr. WILLIAM SMELLIE.

'Dear Willie, *Ackworth, Monday, 18th January 1762.*

'I had the favour of a letter from you some time ago; since which I wrote you, and expected to have heard from you before now; as I really wanted, for an *extremely* good reason, to know if you intend to practice physic; and must, in the ministerial style, insist upon a categorical answer. The reason you shall know by and by*. I should also like to know what classes you attend, and if there is any thing new stirring among you this session.

'If you attend Cullen, you will find him much more ingenious in fishing for difficulties and starting doubts, than in solving them; and, when he has roused your whole soul into curiosity and expectation, and you are just gaping to hear the solution of some fine problem, all that you are to expect is, "That we are not yet in a capacity for determining this matter."'

'Mr. WILLIAM SMELLIE to Dr. BUCHAN.

'Dear Sir,

1762.

'I am greatly indebted to you for communicating the curious cases contained in your letter, and more so for the obliging invitation of

* * This is obviously a hint at his intended publication, *Domestic Medicine*, of which hereafter.'

coming to stay with you. Ever since I enjoyed the pleasure of your acquaintance, I have had the strongest proofs of your friendship; and I find that neither absence nor difference of situation have in the smallest degree impaired the goodness or generosity of your heart. Would that I were able to make you some other return, than barely that of gratitude. It is altogether impracticable, I am afraid, to comply with your intentions at present; and I wish I did not see several obstacles which make me entertain doubts of the success of such a scheme in any future period. I doubt nothing either with regard to your care or capacity to instruct me. But, supposing even I were arrived at the degree of a tolerable surgeon; yet, when I consider my situation in life, together with the disposition and temper of my mind, it comes to be a question with me, whether or not I could benefit myself by it. I am equally destitute of money and impudence; two great sources of wealth and reputation. Any booby with a little brass in his face and a doctoreal peruke, &c. would cut a much better figure either in town or country than your most humble servant.

‘ Dr. WILLIAM BUCHAN to Mr. WILLIAM SMELLIE.

‘ Dear Smellie,

‘ I had your letter some time ago without date, so can't tell whether it came in due course or not: but you must excuse me if I should tell you that your truly whimsical notion of modesty seems to me quite romantic. I never thought you impudent; but am perfectly sure you never will be a loser by your modesty in the medical profession, as I don't think you possessed of that quality to a fault, and a man never loses by the appearance of it. If you have no other objection to the medical profession but your innate modesty, I desire you never to think of that more, as I shall be answerable for your success if that proves the only impediment; and I think I have gone pretty far to remove any other objection which you can possibly start. Impudence may introduce a man, but real merit must secure his success in the practice of medicine; and this, if I mistake not, is the case all over the world. The qualifications which you seem to wish so much to be possessed of, might, I own, do very well to fit a man for the stage as a quack; but can never be supposed necessary for a regular physician, unless you suppose us all to be a parcel of brazen-faced rascals together.’

Extract from a subsequent letter from Dr. Buchan: (no date.)

‘ As to your hint, I understand it very well; and, if you will put it in my power, I am determined not to be behind hand with any of your friends. Whether the manner in which I mean to serve you will suit or not, I cannot say, but shall be glad to have your opinion of it. The plan is this. I intend to print my performance here, — and, if you could make it suit your convenience to come up here for a few weeks, and lend me a hand at the time of printing, I should not only esteem it a great favour, but will engage to give you 100*l.*, not in *loan*, but as a *reward*, provided you can stay long enough, besides the preference of printing my work at Edinburgh,

which I flatter myself might turn out to good account. You certainly think I am very vain of my performance ; but you will find that I am not so vain a parent as you may imagine ; only I think I have hit upon something that will sell.'—

' *Sheffield, 15th Dec. 1765.*

' You seem to have a strong inclination to know my subject ; and indeed I think it hardly friendly to keep you in the dark about that ; but there is not room now to say much about it ; only, in general, it is a medical performance, calculated for general use ; and is something in the manner of Dr. Tissot's *Advice to the People*, but upon a more general plan, and will, I hope, be more extensively useful. I am so far come to the cool part of life as to look upon publications which are not calculated for the good of mankind as a prostitution of talents, an abuse of time, and a gross imposition.'—

' My plan, in one word, pray God prosper it ! is this : To put mankind on their guard against diseases by pointing out their causes, and likewise to show them how far it is in their power to remove slight disorders by the use of simple remedies.

' I would have you to take particular care to recommend it to the clergy, as they are the most likely people to promote its sale and usefulness. If you can find means to convey one of the proposals to every minister of the church of Scotland, and likewise to the Dissenters, I shall be obliged to you, and shall not grudge any expence. If you can find an honest fellow whom you can depend upon, who is pretty well acquainted with the country, and has got somewhat to say for himself, I shall be obliged to you to employ him in collecting subscriptions. What Mr. Ward allows here is ten shillings a-week ; but I generally put the allowance upon the number of subscriptions procured, as that is an incitement to industry. What I allow is one shilling for each subscription.'

The consequence of this correspondence was that Dr. Buchan came to Edinburgh with the MS. of the *Domestic Medicine*, and put it into Mr. Smellie's hands, who seems to have rewritten the whole, and to have greatly condensed it. That Dr. Buchan's style was diffuse and exuberant is apparent from the composition of his "*Advice to Mothers*," a work published so lately as 1803, when Mr. Smellie was not living to correct his redundancy. Well might the Doctor anticipate, in corresponding with his friend, that he had "hit on something that would sell," for the circulation of the *Domestic Medicine* has been almost unexampled ; 6000 copies having, for a considerable period, been sold yearly. — Soon after the publication of that work, Mr. Smellie entered on an engagement for conducting the first edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, which began to appear in numbers in Edinburgh in 1771 ; and on this occasion he acted strictly in a literary capacity, the printing being managed by another person. The following short letter explains the nature of his contract :

' Mr. ANDREW

' MR. ANDREW BELL to MR. WILLIAM SMELLIE.

' Sir,

' As we are engaged in publishing a Dictionary of the Arts and Sciences; and as you have informed us that there are fifteen capital sciences which you will undertake for, and write up the subdivisions and detached parts of these conform to your plan, and likewise to prepare the whole work for the press, &c. &c.; we hereby agree to allow you zool. for your trouble, &c. I am, &c.

' ANDREW BELL.'

It happened very unluckily that he declined an offer of taking a share in the property of this work, which proved eventually a very profitable concern to the undertakers. Its various editions are thus stated:

In 1771. First edition, 3 vols. 4to. Number of copies uncertain.

1776. Second ditto, 10 vols. 4to. 1500 copies.

1786. Third ditto, 18 vols. 4to. 10,000 ditto.

(This was productive of a large profit.)

1806. Fourth ditto, 20 vols. 4to. 3500 ditto.

1811. Fifth ditto, 20 vols. 4to. 2000 ditto.

Instead of fixing his hopes of fortune on this substantial concern, Mr. Smellie became interested, with the well known Dr. Gilbert Stuart, in a new periodical publication called "The Edinburgh Magazine and Review." It began in 1773; and from the talents and spirit which it discovered, its success would have been beyond a doubt, had it not been for the imprudence and violence of Dr. Stuart.

' Dr. Gilbert Stuart, L.L.D., was a person of eminent genius, extensive learning, and great literary powers, but of ill regulated conduct. His father, Mr. George Stuart, a profound classical scholar, was long Professor of Humanity and Roman Antiquities in the University of Edinburgh. Dr. Stuart was born at Edinburgh in 1742, in which city he received a complete classical and literary education, under the superintending care of his learned father. — While engaged in some of his studies and projected publications, he has been known to confine himself for many weeks to solitary literary labour, hardly ever stirring abroad for air and exercise; but he unfortunately indulged in occasional sallies of vastly too great latitude and even licentiousness.

' Having turned the best of his studies to the law, he became a candidate for one of the law chairs in the University of Edinburgh which happened to fall vacant; and being disappointed, as is said through the proper interference of the late celebrated Dr Robertson, then Principal of the University, who is reported to have objected to the dissipation of his habits, as rendering him unfit to be entrusted with the instruction of youth, instead of improving the deserved chastisement which he had experienced on this occasion, — his eager and irascible temperament of mind became filled with indignant and

and unconquerable hatred of the person whom he believed to have been the cause of his well merited rejection.

' In consequence of this deep-rooted enmity, which he cherished with rancorous keenness during the whole remainder of his life, Dr. Stuart prostituted his great talents in the composition of two historical works, otherwise of distinguished merit, which consist in a great measure of violent invectives against corresponding publications by Principal Robertson. The work entitled a *View of Society in Europe*, by Dr. Stuart, is in obvious contradiction to the excellent luminous Introduction to the admirable *History of the Emperor Charles V.* by Dr. Robertson; and Dr. Stuart's *History of Scotland*, from the Reformation to the death of Queen Mary, is an undisguised and virulent hypocritical attack on the *History of Scotland* by the same illustrious author.'

The effects of disappointed ambition were equally remarkable in Dr. Stuart's contributions to the *Review* and in his historical labours. His almost indiscriminate abuse was productive of general disgust; and a *coup de grace* was given to the former work, after an existence of three years, by a harsh and unmannerly criticism on Lord Monboddo's "*Origin of Language.*" The public sentiment on this occasion may be inferred from the following letters from Mr. Maclaurin, son of the celebrated mathematician, and who was afterward promoted to the Scottish bench by the title of Lord Dreghorn :

' *Edinburgh, 17th Nov. 1776.*

' Mr. Maclaurin's compliments to Mr. Smellie, has just now paid his account for the *Edinburgh Review* from No. xv. to No. xxxiii. but desires that no more numbers be sent to him, for a reason which he imagines will be easily guessed by Mr. Smellie.

' From Mr. WILLIAM SMELLIE to JOHN MACLAURIN Esq.
' Advocate.

' Sir,

Edinburgh, 18th Nov. 1776.

' As I have a very high respect for your opinion, the card you were pleased to write me yesterday has given me much anxiety. After revolving every circumstance, I find myself unable to discover any thing in my conduct that could ever have a tendency to displease you. In these circumstances, you will forgive me for expressing a desire to learn in what particular I may have inadvertently offended you, that I may have an opportunity of making every reparation in my power.'

' To Mr. WILLIAM SMELLIE from JOHN MACLAURIN Esq.

' Sir,

No date.

' I am extremely sorry that the brevity of my card, which was owing to my being in a hurry, when I wrote it, has led you to imagine that it proceeded from any dissatisfaction with you personally. — My reason, and my only reason, for giving up the *Review* is the shocking scurrility and abuse in the late articles of it concerning Lord Monboddo's book. I differ in opinion in many things from his
Lordship,

Lordship, yet I highly disapprove of the manner in which he has been treated by the reviewers; and every gentleman with whom I have talked upon the subject is of the same way of thinking. I therefore thought it my duty to discourage that work as far as I can. From the character which you bear, I am, with much regard, Sir, &c.

‘ JOHN MACLAURIN.’

Those who are inquisitive with regard to the secret history of Scottish literature may see in these Memoirs, Vol. i. p. 402., a list of the different articles which were contributed to this Magazine by Dr. Stuart, Mr. Smellie, Dr. Blacklock, Professor Barron (of St. Andrew's), and others. — Natural history had always been a favourite study with Mr. Smellie; and in 1775 the professorship of that science, lately instituted by the Crown, in the University of Edinburgh, became vacant. He was a candidate for this honourable appointment, and was supported in his endeavours by the friendly aid of Sir John Dalrymple; whose brief and business-like style is apparent in the correspondence that ensued. We insert it as affording a curious example of the manner in which nominations in the gift of the Crown are conducted:

‘ FROM SIR JOHN DALRYMPLE TO MR. WILLIAM SMELLIE.

‘ Dear Sir,

No date.

‘ I know to my certain knowledge that Lord North has given the disposal of every thing in Edinburgh to Thomas Dundas, to enable him to keep the town. I will write to him with all my heart. But, as he is pushed in Edinburgh by the Duke of Buccleuch, and is likely to be pushed in Stirlingshire by the Duke of Argyll, he is forced to give every thing with a view to his politics, much against the natural turn of one of the best heads and hearts I am acquainted with.

‘ I do not know any thing of Lord Kames's connexions in Stirlingshire. But if he and his son will chuse to explain themselves to Thomas Dundas, I dare say he will get you this thing.

‘ If you go to the Advocate, you will do yourself a mischief; because it will force Thomas Dundas to oppose you for the reputation of his power. Besides, ever since he fell upon Lord North's conciliatory proposition relative to the revenue of February 1774, he has no more interest there than my foot.

‘ Independent of your interest, I wish extremely you had the professorship, as there are such numbers of students of medicine from all countries, many of whom have a respect for the place of their education, that the best museum in the universe might be collected in Edinburgh by their benefactions, if there was a room to receive it, and money for the carriage and preservation of the things. I think I could get Lord Mount-Stewart to engage in this. I am, &c.

‘ JOHN DALRYMPLE.

‘ SIR JOHN DALRYMPLE Bart. to THOMAS DUNDAS Esq. M. P.,

‘ Dear Sir,

Edinburgh, Feb. 22. 1776.

‘ I wrote you formerly about Dr. Ramsay's professorship of Natural History. Smellie, besides being very able for the business,

has

has this advantage, that he lives close in Edinburgh, is much liked, and has a sagacious insinuating address, which may make him useful to you in your politics; and he will go through fire and water to do any thing I bid him, provided it is not wrong.

'Kames is doating, I fancy, for he will not apply to you. Yours, &c. JOHN DALRYMPLE.

'MR. WILLIAM SMELLIE TO THOMAS DUNDAS Esq. M. P.

'Sir,

No date.

'You have a right to be surprised at my addressing you. Though I have not the honour of your acquaintance, I am no stranger to your character; and nothing but your reputation for candour and generosity could have induced me to give you this trouble.

'Sir John Dalrymple has written to you in my favour, respecting the professorship of Natural History in this College. This science has always been my favourite study; and I have even composed a set of Lectures on the subject, because my friend Dr. Ramsay never taught a regular course. When that gentleman's health began to decline, about twelve months ago, Lord Kames wrote to Lord Suffolk, recommending me to that Chair, in case of a vacancy. Lord Suffolk returned a polite answer; and I feel all due gratitude to Lord Kames. But I soon after learned that you, Sir, had procured the disposal of it from the minister; and I instantly thought of Sir John Dalrymple as the only active friend who could apply to you with propriety. This he cheerfully did: And I hope it will not be thought unnatural for me to be anxious to learn if I have any chance of success.'—

'THOMAS DUNDAS Esq. to MR. WILLIAM SMELLIE.

'Sir,

London, 6th March, 1776.

'I must own the compliment you are pleased to pay me in the beginning of your letter gratifies me exceedingly, as from a person of Mr. Smellie's character and abilities I cannot expect flattery.

'With respect to the professorship of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh, the applications on that subject have been numberless; and from the many and repeated recommendations which Sir Lawrence Dundas had from his friends of the city of Edinburgh, and from different members of the University, he was led to recommend Dr. Walker, minister I believe of Mossat, to succeed Dr. Ramsay. What the result of his and other recommendations may be, I cannot pretend at present to say. I shall only add, that I am sincerely sorry it puts it out of my power to interest myself in your favour so much as I could wish. I am, &c.

'THOS. DUNDAS.'

Dr. Walker accordingly obtained the professorship, and kept it till his death in 1803, when it was bestowed on the present occupant, Dr. Jamieson. Disappointed in this favourite object, Mr. Smellie was obliged to continue at his printing business, as a provision for the maintenance of a family now become numerous. The hours, however, which could be spared from its uninteresting routine were eagerly devoted to the prosecution of
the

the study of natural history. He long cherished the idea of delivering lectures on that subject in a private capacity, and he undertook to become the translator into English of Buffon's celebrated work. This was a task strictly adapted to his pursuits, which he executed in a manner that conferred an important benefit on the British public; and Buffon himself, as appears by his letters, (Vol. ii. p. 129. *et seq.*) was in great good humour on finding that his labours were about to be communicated to the English nation through so intelligent a medium. Mr. Smellie is said (Vol. ii. p. 118.) to have followed a very unusual method in making this translation. Instead of rendering the work literally, sentence by sentence, he is reported to have read over paragraphs and even pages without writing; and, having impressed the substance of the author's ideas on his mind, to have formed the translation in his own words and arrangement. Such a mode of proceeding cannot fail to lessen the tedium of mechanical translation, but it is to be attempted only by a person who is completely master of the subject, and actuated by an ardour similar to that of the original writer. To a translator thus animated, no method can be more likely to enable him to store up in his recollection the substance of a valuable book.

We now come to the most important of Mr. Smellie's literary labors, his "Philosophy of Natural History," the idea of which had been suggested to him by that ardent friend of science, Lord Kaimes; who regretted that the productions of nature had so long been treated individually, without attempting to arrive at leading principles, and to ascertain the laws common to extensive divisions in the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdoms. To supply this *desideratum* was the object of Mr. Smellie's labors; and he condensed in this work the substance of the materials which he had collected for the intended lectures on natural history. The performance, in its complete state, consists of two volumes; one of which was published in 1790, but the other not till 1799, subsequently to his death. It is the pillar of Mr. Smellie's literary fame; and, though liable to various exceptions, which we explained in our review of both publications*, it is intitled, as we then declared, to the praise of containing "a large stock of agreeable and useful knowledge."—In considering Mr. Smellie's pecuniary difficulties, and the large portion of his time which was sacrificed in professional drudgery, we are naturally led to make a kind of comparison (however different the persons) between his situation and that of the author of the *Wanderer*; and, instead of

* See M. Rev., N. S. Vol. v. p. 181., and Vol. xxxvii. p. 415.

dwelling on the deficiencies of a performance which was prepared under such untoward circumstances, we are induced to express surprise that its blemishes are so completely overbalanced by its merits. Foreign nations concurred with our own in bearing to it a favourable testimony, and it was translated not only into French but into German. The depredators of copy-right in Ireland, also, in those days of irregularity as to literary property, were not slow in reprinting it; and it was one of the select productions which the American booksellers ventured to republish on their own account. The first edition of it in this country was in 4to.; the number of copies, 2000, and the sale of them was completed in the course of four years. Mr. Smellie sold the copy-right, and was for once liberally treated, as appears by a letter from the late Mr. Charles Elliot, a respectable Edinburgh bookseller :

‘ MR. CHARLES ELLIOT TO MR. WILLIAM SMELLIE.

‘ Sir,

Edinburgh, 11th Dec. 1786.

‘ I have received yours of this date offering me the property of your book, entitled *The Philosophy of Natural History*, lately offered to the public by subscription. The volume is to contain at least six hundred pages on an *English* type. The conditions, 1. That I pay you one thousand guineas, at six, twelve, and eighteen months, in equal proportions, after the book is printed off. 2. Besides the above sum of one thousand guineas, I am to allow you fifty pounds Sterling for every edition of one thousand copies in quarto after the first edition; and so on in proportion for every larger or smaller impression; and, if reduced to an octavo form, that I shall pay you for every edition a sum proportioned to the respective selling price of the books in quarto and octavo. 3. That you shall have the refusal of printing every edition of the above work, according to the time that may be necessary for the publication of any particular edition.

‘ I hereby accept of the above offer and conditions, and bind and oblige myself accordingly; and am, &c. CHARLES ELLIOT.’

Mr. Smellie, however, did not live to receive the stipulated price; Mr. Elliot's death having occurred soon after the publication of the book, and his trustees, though the bargain was most honourably observed by them, being prevented by legal obstacles from fulfilling it during several years. — Notwithstanding the success of the first volume, Mr. Smellie experienced considerable difficulty in obtaining a suitable offer for the second part. Much correspondence occurs on the subject in these *Memoirs* (Vol. ii. p. 324. *et seq.*): but, as the cause of discouragement is not distinctly explained, it must probably be sought in the war, and the consequent pecuniary embarrassments of booksellers and other persons in trade.

Among

Among the correspondents of Mr. Smellie, the Ayrshire bard, Robert Burns, is intitled to a place. They became acquainted on Burns's arrival in Edinburgh in 1787, on which occasion Mr. Smellie was employed to print his poems. Both had a keen relish for social intercourse; and a difference of twenty years in their respective ages did not prevent a close and cordial intimacy. Mr. Smellie introduced the poet to a noted club at Edinburgh, and did not scruple to make him occasionally the object of those sarcasms with which he was accustomed to try the patience of new members. Many letters from Burns, found in Mr. Smellie's repositories, bore striking marks of his characteristic energy: but they were expressed in a style of such improper freedom, and contained such severe reflections on respectable persons still living, that it was judged proper to commit them to the flames. The delicacy, which in this respect withheld the editor, has actuated him likewise in avoiding to mention the names of several persons who were indebted to Mr. Smellie for a revision of their publications. As he ranked at the head of his profession on the score of education, it was natural that young authors should resort in preference to a printer who was able to combine the correction of their language with a respectable execution of the mechanical part. Mr. Smellie was also, during many years, sole printer of the Latin dissertations, or inaugural theses, which are delivered publicly by the candidates for the medical degree at Edinburgh; and he was thus led to publish selections of those discourses down to the year 1750, in two volumes, under the title of *Thesaurus Medicus*. In these, and in the volumes subsequently issued by the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, we have a list of the number of annual graduates in medicine, which deserves attention, as indicative of the progressive advance of the Edinburgh school. It was in 1726 that a regular record began to be kept, and in the ten years

From 1726 to 1735. the number of graduates was 15			
1736	1745.	20	From 1776 to 1785. 240
1746	1755..	106	1786 1795. 330
1756	1765.	78	1796 1805. 469.
1766	1775.	170	

While treating of the progress of the University of Edinburgh, Mr. Kerr takes occasion to lay before his readers a list of the total number of students in attendance during the twenty years from 1790 to 1810. They are classed in four divisions, Law, Medicine, Divinity, and the Arts; the last title comprehending the learned languages, philosophy, mathematics, and the physical sciences.

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Arts.</i>	<i>Medicine.</i>	<i>Law.</i>	<i>Divinity.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
1790.	463	517	131	134	1245
1791.	473	547	129	129	1279
1792.	453	581	142	133	1309
1793.	464	527	124	137	1252
1794.	470	525	154	146	1295
1795.	427	508	143	140	1218
1796.	496	577	156	130	1359
1797.	471	591	154	125	1341
1798.	461	592	124	125	1302
1799.	472	636	97	125	1330
1800.	447	640	116	125	1332
1801.	500	661	108	131	1400
1802.	522	740	117	130	1509
1803.	506	681	113	120	1420
1804.	550	662	113	125	1450
1805.	629	703	113	125	1570
1806.	642	764	143	125	1674
1807.	672	826	157	115	1770
1808.	723	838	152	120	1833
1809.	805	876	169	130	1979.

It is of importance, however, to remark that these separate lists are formed by taking the number of students in each of the four departments, without inquiring whether particular students may not be prosecuting two distinct branches of study at the same time. This may have led to an annual over-rating of perhaps 100 students. Of late, we understand, a more accurate mode of enumeration has been adopted.

Mr. Smellie's latter days were unfortunately as much clouded by pecuniary difficulties as his outset in life. His business was carried on for a long time in partnerships, but eventually on his separate account. Few branches have participated more in the general extension of our trade during the last half century than printing, but few are more exposed to suffer from delay in the return of capital in seasons of mercantile embarrassment. Mr. Smellie, moreover, if we except the cardinal virtue of industry, was little fitted for trade; being of a facile disposition, without a due sense of the value of money, and averse to the drudgery of accounts. We cannot wonder that with these drawbacks, and with the burden of a numerous family, his life was passed in anxiety, and that a disease was engendered which brought him prematurely to his end. Increased by too much sedentary labour, this complaint, which appears to have been indigestion and want of appetite, overthrew a constitution originally excellent, and carried him to the grave in 1795, in his 55th year. In youth, he had been active: but, after middle life, his lounging gait and careless dress appeared the indications of straitened circumstances and mental disquietude. Yet

few men were ever blessed with a happier temper. In his early years he complained (Vol. i. p. 200.) of suffering from the effects of that *mauvaise honte* which sometimes attends the retired and contemplative scholar; and a consciousness of this feeling, with a consequent apprehension of inability for public stations, appears to have been one reason for inducing him to relinquish the idea of a clerical life. The habit of careful application soon gave him a remarkable clearness and readiness of composition, which are equally apparent in his correspondence and in his printed works, and, without aiming at the higher graces of style, he is an animated writer, and never lapses into redundant language. In conversation he was always communicative; and it may be made a general remark with regard to the Edinburgh literati of a higher station than Mr. Smellie, that the habit of imparting their knowledge by lectures, and of exchanging ideas in frequent intercourse with each other, conduces to render them liberal communicators of their stock of information. From participating largely in this disposition, it happened that Mr. Smellie's minor essays were very numerous. A list of them is given by his biographer, (Vol. ii. p. 214.) and honourable mention is made of one of them in particular, viz. an "Essay on the Nature, Power, and Privileges of Juries," which was published in 1784. It is much to be regretted that Mr. Smellie was unable to finish a very useful work which he had planned, under the title of "Literary and Characteristical Accounts of Scottish Authors with whom he was personally acquainted." From the papers which remain, we learn that it was his intention to write, among others, the lives of Dr. Blair, Dr. Beattie, Dr. Black, Dr. Blacklock, Lord Monboddo, Dr. Campbell, (Aberdeen,) Dr. Cullen, Sir David Dalrymple, Dr. Ferguson, Dr. Gregory, (the author of the Legacy to his Daughters,) Mr. Hume, Lord Kaimes, Dr. Monro, senior, Dr. Robertson, and Adam Smith. Of these projected lives, four only were completed; viz. those of Lord Kaimes, Dr. Gregory, Mr. Hume, and Dr. Smith; which were left in MS., and published in 1800 under the title of "Literary and Characteristic Lives, by Mr. Smellie."* They were short; and the addition of some of his juvenile essays was required to make out an octavo volume.

Of the dexterity acquired by Mr. Smellie in the mechanical part of his profession, his biographer gives this account:

* Mr. Smellie possessed uncommon readiness and accuracy in correcting proof sheets. Even in the Latin and French languages, he could attend at once to their accurate orthography and grammatical construction, and to the punctuation and minute niceties of typogra-

* See Rev. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 422.

phical precision, while a boy was reading the manuscript to him as quickly as possible. The present Mr. William Waddel, the active and intelligent manager of the vast concerns of the King's printers and stationers for Scotland, served his apprenticeship to Mr. Smellie. Being both an excellent scholar and an uncommonly quick and accurate reader, he was always selected to read the manuscripts of the medical and law Theses, which are all in the Latin language, to Mr. Smellie; and Mr. Waddel says that it was absolutely incredible how accurately Mr. Smellie corrected the proofs, while he, Mr. Waddel, read to him as fast as he was able.'

Among other miscellaneous notices in these volumes, we have a short sketch of Lavater's character by the Rev. Dr. Henry Hunter, who translated his work on physiognomy, and travelled to Zurich to see him. He described him as "a strange, wild, excentric creature; possessing great genius, unaffected piety, unbounded benevolence, moderate learning, much caprice and unsteadiness, a mind at once aspiring by nature and grovelling through necessity, with an endless turn to speculation and project; in a word, a clever, flighty, good natured, necessitous man."

Those who know Dr. Smith only by his writings will see with pleasure, from the following extracts, that the attachment of his private friends was not inferior to the admiration of the public.

Extract of a letter from Mr. Smellie to Mr. Clason of Cleveland Court, St. James's :

' Edinburgh, 27th June, 1790.

' Poor Smith ! We must soon lose him ; and the moment in which he departs will give a heart-felt pang to thousands. Mr. Smith's spirits are flat ; and I am afraid the exertions he sometimes makes to please his friends do him no good. His intellects, as well as his senses, are clear and distinct. He wishes to be cheerful ; but nature is omnipotent. His body is extremely emaciated, because his stomach cannot admit of sufficient nourishment : but, like a man, he is perfectly patient and resigned.'

Answer :

' London, 6th July, 1790.

' The news you give of Mr. Smith alarms and afflicts me severely. Were he known to me only by his works, I should even then esteem his death a greater loss to the world than would be sustained by that of any other literary man, indeed of any man in Europe. But he has been long my friend ; and I feel that I shall mourn more bitterly for the good friend than for the great man. Fain, O ! fain would I still hope — his constitution is good, and, except by study, he never has done any thing to hurt it, and study never kills. I hope Dr. Black visits him. — I hope — I hope. — I beg you will now and then take the trouble, for which I will be grateful, of sending me an account of his situation. My mind is thrown into cruel derangement when I think of him.'

Having

Having had occasion to mention Mr. Murray, the biographer of Bruce, whose publication was reported in our 19th volume, (p. 385.) Mr. Kerr, agreeably to his usual practice, takes the opportunity to introduce an account of that gentleman's literary labours :

‘ Mr. Murray is a rare instance of unusual attainments in literature and philology, though originally placed in peculiarly discouraging circumstances of situation, every way adverse for eliciting or promoting his uncommon talents. Altogether unknown and destitute of patronage, and barely possessing the means of subsistence, that gentleman became in very early youth, entirely by his own exertions, and in a wonderfully short time, master of the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages. While living in an obscure situation in the country, he is reported to have made himself master of seven languages, before he was twenty years of age. While engaged in theological studies at Edinburgh, he acquired knowledge of the Chaldee, Samaritan, Syriac, and Arabic ; and extended his researches into Persic, German, Dutch, Spanish, and even Gaelic.’—

‘ In the prosecution of his philological studies, he has carefully examined the principal dialects or languages of Europe, ancient as well as modern, including, besides those which are derived from the Latin, those of Teutonic, Slavonic, and Celtic origin.— He has announced a philosophical work on this curious subject to the public, in which he proposes to trace the affinities and origin of the Greek and Latin languages from one much more simple, regular, and ancient, which he considers as the basis or root of almost all the languages of Europe, ancient as well as modern, and even of the Sanscrit.’

From these sketches of characters collaterally introduced, it is now time to pass to Mr. Kerr himself, and to comment farther on his manner of executing his biographical task. We have seldom met in the course of our reading with a more ardent panegyrist than this gentleman:—even Mr. Hardy, Lord Charlemont's biographer, is far behind him. Nobody is mentioned without an accompanying epithet of encomium; and the terms ‘ingenious, celebrated, admirable, illustrious,’ are dealt around with a profusion which we apprehend must in many cases extort a smile from those who happened to have a thorough knowledge of the characters thus liberally “bepraised.” Another charge against Mr. Kerr is the introduction of irrelevant and frequently trifling matter. The contribution by Mr. Smellie of the article *Æther*, in the Encyclopedia, having led to a dispute between Dr. Cullen and the late Dr. Gregory, the whole article is most unnecessarily inserted in the present memoirs. The anecdotes of Dr. Stuart, (Vol. i. p. 502.) the contentions between two booksellers, (Vol. ii. p. 57.) and the still more insignificant circumstances subsequently introduced, (p. 186.

and 258.) ought all to have been excluded. If a milder sentence be due to such passages as the analysis (Vol. ii. p. 276.) of the "Philosophy of Natural History," or to Mr. Smellie's remarks (p. 238.) on domestic life, we can admit their title to no other station than that of notes at the end of the volume. A third animadversion regards the style; which, throughout, is very diffuse, and abounding in repetitions. We are told, for example, three times, that Dr. Monro has been anatomical professor in Edinburgh for nearly half a century; and what are we to say of such expressions as 'unexampledly,' (Vol. i. p. 394.) 'recollect himself of,' (Vol. ii. p. 258.) or 'serve heir to,' (Vol. i. p. 17.)? Neither has the printing of the book been carefully managed, as is evident from the concluding pages of the first volume, and its abrupt termination. A fourth objection may certainly be made on the score of *price*, which is remarkably exorbitant. Accuracy of statement, moreover, is not always to be ascribed to the author. At p. 305. of Vol. i. Mr. Kerr has published a letter written by Mr. Smellie, in August 1765, to the authors of the *Monthly Review*, in reply to what Mr. K. has termed 'a disingenious' (probably meaning *disingenious*) attack on the metaphysical principles of Dr. Reid, in the *M. R.* for June: but it should have been stated that the Reviewers were not answerable for the sentiments of this 'attack,' which were merely conveyed in the letter of an unknown correspondent. At p. 317. Mr. K. has committed a double error in calling the *M. R.* *the London Review*, and in speaking of it as being conducted 'for R. Dodsley.' Mr. D. never had any connection with our work, either as to the property or the management of it. We think, also, that the insertion of the letter which follows this last remark is one of the instances in which Mr. Kerr has unnecessarily and improperly given publicity to private communications. In the article of the *Index* which refers to it, *Robert* should be *Ralph*.

The evil, however, of which we chiefly complain is the size of the work, not only as ridiculous when its subject is considered, but as the main cause of the introduction of so much superfluous matter. No discouragement on the part of critics seems likely to be successful in counteracting this book-making rage. Since the publication of a translation of Sallust in 2 vols. 4to., the authors and booksellers of the north must be allowed to bid fair to rival, in this hopeful characteristic, their brethren in the south. Yet we are at a loss to comprehend in what way this conduct can prove conducive to the interest of either. The dearth of a book must have a material operation in limiting the extent of its sale; and few things tend more to discourage a reader than the obligation to wade, in quest
of

of information, through a mass of uninteresting matter. In the present publication, the outline of the plan was good, and the writer is evidently a man of liberal views: — if to these advantages had been added a careful selection and compression of materials, the result might, in our opinion, have been one instructive and popular volume.

ART. VIII. *A Chronological Abridgment of the History of Great Britain, from the first Invasion of the Romans, to the present Reign.* By Ant. Fr. Bertrand de Moleville, late Minister and Secretary of State under the Reign of Louis XVI. 4 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

ART. IX. *Historical Reflections on the Constitution and Representative System of England, with Reference to the popular Proposals for a Reform of Parliament.* By James Jopp, Esq. 8vo. pp. 439. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1812.

SIMILARITY of subject has induced us to combine our observations on these two works; the former of which is strictly historical, and the latter much more appropriated to disquisitions of that kind than to abstract reflections on the nature of our constitution. M. Bertrand de Moleville has long been known to the world as a minister of state and an author. His “Annals of the French Revolution” were published in 1800, and were reported by us, with a minor work, in our xxxiiid Volume; and ‘it was,’ he declares, (Vol. iii.) ‘a pleasant transition to him to exchange the task of writing the history of the most atrocious crimes that ever disgraced a civilized age, for the composition of the annals of the country that had afforded him an asylum from revolutionary horrors.’ The plan of his abridgment is similar to that of the chronological history of France by Hénault, or rather to that of the history of Germany by Pfeffel.

‘In order to unite in this Abridgment the advantages of the two, the history of England, from the first invasion of the Romans to the present reign, is divided into nine periods: each of these is terminated by general observations on the progress, changes, and improvements in the constitution, government, laws, &c. &c.; and by references to the historical works and documents containing the proof of the principal facts and events of the different reigns included in each period. Then follows an appendix consisting of a chronological list, in several columns, of the cotemporary sovereigns and illustrious men of Europe with the date of their death; and of a succinct account of the most remarkable events that have occurred during the same period in all the other states of Europe, the dates of which are placed in the margin. The division into periods I consider as the best means of facilitating the use of that artificial memory, by which certain ideas,

being once connected in the mind with certain numbers or figures, produce a simultaneous recollection.'

The periods into which he has divided our history are the following :

I. From the invasion of Cæsar to the invasion of the Saxons in 449.

II. From 449 to the consolidation of the Heptarchy into one kingdom in 827.

III. From 827 to the Conquest in 1066.

IV. From the Conquest to the accession of Henry II. in 1154.

V. From 1154 to the accession of Henry IV. in 1399.

VI. From 1399 to the end of the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster on the accession of Henry VII. in 1485.

VII. From 1485 to the junction of the crowns of England and Scotland on the accession of James I. in 1603.

VIII. From 1603 to the Revolution in 1688.

IX. From 1688 to the peace of Paris in 1763.

These periods occupy, as may naturally be conceived, very unequal portions of the author's volumes : the third and fourth, and even a part of the second, being appropriated to the eighth and ninth periods exclusively. His narrative is generally divided into years, and is not incumbered with unnecessary preambles or circumlocution : but plain notices of the occurrences of the time, given generally in the present tense, and partaking in some measure of the journal-form, constitute the body of the work. Political anecdotes are occasionally introduced ; and the reader experiences little of that dryness which the uninviting name of Chronology is calculated to suggest. In the author's style, we have noticed occasionally the traces of a foreign idiom. He begins, for example, with a ' preliminary note ' instead of " notice : " ' Men of all ranks,' he says, (Vol. i. p. 146.) ' fled to arms ;' and, speaking subsequently (p. 388.) of the abolition in France of the order of Knights-templars, in the year 1310, he adds that ' above a hundred of them were put *to the question*,' meaning, no doubt, " put to the torture." Notwithstanding these and several other mistakes of a similar description, M. Bertrand de Moleville must be admitted to write our language with a degree of fluency and accuracy, which is very unusual among foreigners. — He expresses (Vol. iii.) many obligations to the late Lord Shaftesbury, for assistance in the loan of those historical works which the reduced finances of an emigrant did not admit of purchasing : he assures his readers, likewise, that he has consulted with great care the MSS. in the British

British Museum; and he says that to the additional information procured in that quarter the public must attribute the expansion of his work, his original plan being to limit it to three volumes. From the nature of his former political attachments, it was to be expected that in party-points he should have a leaning to the side of the crown; and, indeed, one of his motives for undertaking this task was to counteract the effects of what he styles the 'inflammatory opinions propagated by some continuators of Hume; — writers who, mistaking democracy for patriotism, bring forwards, as constitutional principles, republican exaggerations fit only to inculcate a spirit of faction.' If this be carrying the charge against these writers too far, it is due to M. Bertrand to add that his political bias does not lead him to misrepresent the facts of our history.

One of the most interesting passages is a parallel between the situations of Charles I. and Louis XVI. After having taken notice of several points of discrepancy between the respective revolutions, the author adds :

'There remains a peculiar disparity, worth noticing, between the character of Charles I. and Louis XVI. The latter, though endowed with the same personal courage and intrepidity as Charles, was much more deficient in that vigour of resolution which the situation of both so essentially required. But what is still more remarkable, the history of Charles I. which Louis never failed to read every day from the beginning of the Revolution to the end of his life, instead of pointing out to him the measures which, duly considering the difference of circumstances, he was to pursue or to avoid, proved, on the contrary, the most pernicious of all instructions to him. Impressed, as he was from the insurrections of the 5th and 6th of October, 1789, with the idea that his own murder must absolutely be the final catastrophe of the Revolution, his constant anxiety for the honour of his country made him wish, above all things, that the name of the French nation should never be stained with the indelible stigma of such an execrable deed, which he thought could be prevented only by a private assassination; and as he had entirely made up his mind about it, his whole attention in Charles's history was ever fixed on those measures which had or might have been construed into acts of treason against the nation. Thence his unshaken resolution of never employing his armies against any revolutionary commotion, though it was universally acknowledged by all parties, that had the King appeared in arms at the head of a few of his troops, all the revolutionary schemes or conspiracies, and the Revolution itself, would instantly have been at an end. Charles's conduct in the English Revolution sufficiently evinces that he would never have committed such a fault.' — 'On the other hand, if we consider how far Louis XVI. was from harbouring any jealousy about his prerogative, or any idea of enlarging it by encroachments upon the privileges or liberties of the people, and how readily he consented to the redress of all grievances in that respect, we might perhaps as fairly conclude from it

that had he been King of England at the time of the Revolution, his full and easy compliance with the demands with which it was introduced, would not have left the shadow of a pretence for it.'

Mr. Jopp's volume is one of the longest and most elaborate performances that has appeared for some time on the side of the crown, on the great question of parliamentary reform. He complains of much misrepresentation of historical facts by the popular advocates, and pointedly censures the vehement language in which some of the less cautious of them venture to address their uninstructed hearers. Under these impressions, he has imposed on himself, by way of a comprehensive answer to these gentlemen, the task of exhibiting the political condition of the kingdom from an early period of the records of our constitution: but, in the prosecution of this undertaking, he sees no reason for going farther back than the reign of William the Conqueror. Many writers are fond of dwelling on the German or Saxon origin of our government: but our documents for those distant ages appear to Mr. Jopp to be too doubtful and disjointed to furnish any thing like clear or consistent conclusions. A similar deficiency is found to exist for two centuries at least after the Conquest; and the provisions of the feudal system furnish, consequently, the chief means of forming opinions on the relative power of our kings and barons, as well as on the condition of the people. For any connected or defined statement of our constitution, we shall look in vain among the records of a period in which martial enterprise took the lead of all other considerations. Our antient writers, moreover, were not likely from their habits to bestow attention on topics of political inquiry: they were almost always ecclesiastics; the exclusive possession of the little learning of the age giving to that profession a kind of monopoly of the management of public affairs, and even of the interpretation of the laws. Unfortunately, the early direction of their minds to theological topics operated as a negative to their prosecution of other researches; so that the chief subjects of notice in their historical annals are the military operations of the day, and the disputes between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities.

It is consistent with the author's course of reasoning to dwell on the Conquest as a direct and absolute overthrow of the antecedent rights of the people; and Hume, whose monarchical tenets he is very fond of quoting, declares that few conquests in history "have been attended with so sudden an alteration both of power and property." It is but too true that William found, in the feudal system, a scheme of constitution powerfully calculated to degrade the natives, and to provide for the tribe of adventurers who had followed his standard; and in enforcing
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this arbitrary system he kept steadily in view the maintenance of the pre-eminence of the crown, and took care to appropriate ample resources, as far as the means of the time admitted, for the continued assertion of its superiority. He granted lands to his nobility with a liberal hand, but the grant was not definitive; it was confined to a right of use on certain conditions, the property or *dominium directum* of these lands remaining vested in the crown. Among the great national alterations of this reign, the principal were the introduction of the forest-laws; the separation of the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction hitherto exercised by county-courts; and, thirdly, the subjecting the lands of the clergy to military tenure. The accession of Henry I., being irregular, was accompanied, for the sake of popularity, by a charter which professed to alleviate the rigours of feudal customs: but, like the charters of succeeding reigns, or like the official promises of the present government of France, it proved little else than a mere matter of form. — The long and interesting reign of Henry II. exhibited little change with regard to the mode of exercising legislative authority. His struggles were with the Church, and the concurrence of the barons was courted principally as a counterpoise to that formidable body. He did not often trespass by unwarrantable levies of money, but, in other respects, the exercise of the legislative power appears to have resided almost exclusively with him. He is said in history to have frequently convoked parliaments, if such a name can be applied to meetings with the constitution and proceedings of which we are very imperfectly acquainted, and which were wholly composed of landholders; for it was not till the reign of Edward I. that deputies from the boroughs were admitted to a seat in the legislature.

Mr. Jopp dwells at some length on the variations in our constitution which were introduced during the warlike reigns of Edward I. and Edward III. Both those princes were absorbed in schemes of conquest, and found it very convenient, for the purpose of obtaining supplies, to address parliament in courteous and condescending language. In a subsequent passage, (p. 250.) the author makes several observations on the management of affairs under Henry VIII. By this time, the influence of the Commons was greatly increased; and Wolsey, skilful and arbitrary as he was, deemed it expedient to exercise moderation in the delicate point of demanding pecuniary supplies. In quoting the opinion of Blackstone on several constitutional points, Mr. Jopp seems as little disposed to subscribe to this great authority, as those who, from a very different feeling, allege that he has not gone far enough in the assertion of popular rights: while he refers to the testimony of Brady with a partiality which few will

will think is merited by an historian who wrote under the reign and too much in the spirit of James II. On Mr. Wyvill and other late reformers, Mr. Jopp has no mercy; and he declares that their propositions would go the length of overturning the fabric of the constitution:

'If the proportion of representatives from the different counties is altered; if the right of election is taken away from corporation and burghage tenures; if it is conferred indiscriminately on all persons paying taxes, these acts will most unquestionably be innovations; the system established by the boasted wisdom of our ancestors, will be laid aside; the rules hitherto governing English representation will be annihilated, and the election of the popular branch of the Legislature, deposited in new hands.'

In the latter part of the volume, (p. 300. *et seq.*) Mr. J. brings his narrative to a close, and enters more largely on the field of disquisition. Here, we confess, we followed him with greater dissatisfaction than in his historical observations. In the latter, though evidently partial, he discovers extensive research, and introduces occasionally instructive remarks, such as (p. 87.) on the hesitation with which we should draw inferences from the scanty documents of a remote age; and (p. 72, 73.) on the too sudden nature of the changes demanded by the famous Magna Charta: but, in the conclusion of the volume, we lament the absence of a due impression of the incalculable benefits which are attendant on the enjoyment of civil liberty. Surely, Mr. J. cannot be aware in how many respects the preferences, the exemptions, and the inequalities, which still subsist among us, are hurtful to the progressive prosperity of the kingdom. Without expatiating on the general benefits that would attend a reform in our representation, it is enough to point our attention to the selfish and pernicious character of our corn-laws. Can any thing be more unfavourable to the extension of our manufactures, the diffusion of our commerce, or the alleviation of the burden of our taxes, than a deliberate scheme to enhance the price of provisions; and, were the people at large to influence, as they ought, the decision of parliament, can it be doubted that our ports would be opened to unrestricted supplies from abroad? Nothing could be more just or politic, since the price of labour is regulated by that of corn, and the value of landed property is directly dependant on that national prosperity of which a moderate price of labour constitutes a fundamental characteristic.

As to composition, while we give Mr. Jopp the credit of modest and temperate language, we must refuse him a title to any compliment on the score of elegance. He abounds in repetition, and frequently displays sentences that extend through half a page; the style of which is farther complicated by inat-

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tentive and incorrect punctuation. Of these defects, indeed, he appears to be in some measure aware, and represents (preface, p. 10.) his performance in the light of a mere sketch, 'a comprehensive constitutional history of unquestionable authority being still a desideratum in our national literature.'

ART. X. *Joseph.* A religious Poem. Historical, Patriarchal, and Typical, with Notes. By the Rev. Charles Lucas, A. M. Curate of Avebury, Wilts. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 320. in each Volume. Printed for the Author.

FULLY apprized of the objections which have been urged against Scripture-epics, the author of this poem endeavours to evade the application of them by the apparently humble confession that the work now before us 'aims not at the ennobling title of Epic.' It cannot, however, with propriety be assigned to any other general class: but whether it be strictly epic or not, it is a Scripture-narrative-poem; and the strictures which critics have offered on poetry manufactured out of the Bible will apply in this case. Mr. Lucas, finding these unlucky strictures to stand in his way, very dexterously proposes to 'leave criticism to its self-idolatry;' in order that, of course, he may "carry all before him." So far we shall indulge him as to give him the full benefit of his own statement and apology:

'In writing upon Joseph, let it not be supposed that my object was to put the Bible history into blank verse; no—I have taken the History of Joseph as I found it in the Book of Genesis; and the many remarks concerning, and allusions to, that son of Jacob in the scriptural writings, *form my theme*. I have collected from every source, as my knowledge, learning, and abilities enabled me—(here the great errors of the work must be); and I have endeavoured to supply the historical vacuum according to the *data* I have met with: my labor, therefore, hath been to make the whole (for I am not conscious of any omission) a complete History of Joseph, not individually, for what more can the Bible require? but complete as to the connective focus and its many accompanying rays; at the same time, correcting errors, elucidating abstruse passages, particularly harmonizing the different authentic accounts, and even having in view the identity between the dawn of religion in those days, and the meridional revelation of Christianity. I speak boldly; but let it be remembered I speak of the intention, not the execution of the work.'

It is not easy to understand what the author means when he says that it was not his object to put the Bible-history into blank-verse, in his preface to a blank-verse Bible-history. He has told us indeed more than is contained in the Bible, since he has consulted the Koran, or rather the notes on the Koran,
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for the name of Potiphar's wife, (Zelிகah): but his mode of amplification and management, in order to extend the history of Joseph through twenty-four books, has nothing in it so original as he seems to imagine.

When he farther observes, 'I have not chosen the subject for the sake of a poetical exhibition, but it assumes the present garb of language as that in which I hoped, the best way, to clothe my thought,' it is fair to ask how far such an acknowledgement ought to shield this poetical exhibition from being tried by those rules which are employed in similar instances? Mr. Lucas has written a long poem, and its merits as a poem must be discussed. In a moral view, his aim may be praiseworthy, in 'having composed a family-work adapted to every one's reading, edification, and amusement, and in having elucidated the history of that worldly and spiritually great man Joseph, in a proper, pleasing, and useful manner;' yet it must not be forgotten that this family-work, as it is termed, is cast in a colossal poetic mould, which gives it an attractive form, and over which drapery from the Muses' wardrobe is attempted to be thrown. In a word, then, it must be submitted to the ordeal of criticism as a poem; and we fear that the character of Mr. Lucas's blank verse will not obtain for him any distinguished celebrity. The work thus opens:

' On Jacob and his Progeny, (select
 From the twin sons of Isaac, promis'd seed
 Of Abraham, whose faith victorious
 The mighty name obtain'd him, Friend of God,)
 And chiefly thee, Joseph, prophet and prince!
 What time, the Hand Divine made Envy's work
 Produce the typical deliverance
 Of all the Faithful, by the Saviour,
 From dearth, soul-wasting, of idolatry,
 And deigns record the patriarchal tale,
 Where earth-born passions yield to primal love,
 My thoughts delight to dwell; and fain essay,
 Led by Religion's hope, and Virtue's zeal,
 To' expatiate on the theme. Far, far proud lust
 Of fame, from artifice or novelty!
 Be mine a simple lay to harmonize
 The strains that suit thine ear, sweet Piety!'

For the ear of sweet piety, the strains of sweet poetry should be prepared, and the poet's invocation for aid is directed to the Eternal Spirit. In a religious poem, he ought not to suggest an idea of his having been led by 'fancy, fable, or fiction;' but a view of the arguments of some of the books is sufficient to shew that the poet in 'this family-work' has given full play to his fancy, and that his prayer to be 'restrained and directed' has

has been offered in vain. We copy two or three of the arguments:

'Book I.—The Thesis stated. Invocation. The Poem brings the Ishmaelites, &c. &c. offering their slaves to Potiphar. Abdeel, a descendant of Ishmael. Potiphar and Zelikah select—Zerah, Esau's grandson—Joseph—Maachah, a Philistine female. Pharaoh's mild government. Prosperity. Potiphar's happiness. Zerah, a soldier. Zelikah favors Joseph. Maachah's reasoning with her concerning him. Her indignant reply, and intemperate behaviour. Potiphar and Joseph return suddenly from the country.

'Book II.—Joseph and Zelikah. Her passion for him declared. His answer. Joseph and Zerah. The scriptural doctrine of the election of Jacob, and reprobation of Esau. Zelikah's change of behaviour. Its consequences. Preparations for the celebration of an Egyptian festival. The rise of Idolatry—Gentile, Papistical. The Temptation of Joseph.

'Book III.—Zelikah accuses Joseph to her husband.' His behaviour. Joseph condemned to the stocks. His public punishment. Memorable occurrences at the time. His resignation and prayer. Scriptural and typical remarks. Sudden release of Joseph, by a Princess of the royal blood, returning home from the Festival. Ramosin, keeper of the prison. His discourse with Joseph. The state of Joseph's mind.

'Book IV.—The Chiefs of the Butlers and Bakers brought by Potiphar to the prison. Interview and discourse between Potiphar and Joseph. Potiphar discovers Zelikah's infidelity and Zerah's treachery. Scene between them and Maachah. Potiphar seeks Joseph in prison—wishes his return. Joseph's answer. The Dreams of the Chiefs of the Butlers and the Bakers. The superstitious notions of credulity, and the suspicious nature and false conception of infidelity, detected and exposed. What is Revelation. Joseph's interpretation of the two dreams, and its accomplishment.'

'Book VI.—Joseph still in prison. His vision. The Angel gives him a view of the Bottomless Pit, where he sees and questions Nimrod. Er. Onan. Sardonax, an Egyptian Prince, his pride, fate, and punishment. A view of Paradise. The occupation and amusement—and descriptions and explanations by the Angel. Many primitive Worthies mentioned. Bardif, an Egyptian pauper. Joseph sees his mother Rachel, and converses with Deborah, his nurse. A suppositious view of the Day of Judgment. The great danger of earthly greatness. The whole applicable to the destiny of Joseph. He is suddenly called to attend Pharaoh.'

We shall also quote from the conclusion of the second book the passage which describes the temptation of Joseph, and the rage of Zelikah, (Potiphar's wife,) on finding her lures ineffectual. A splendid dress is prepared for Zelikah, on occasion of a great Egyptian festival; and all the menials are in readiness to attend their fair mistress to the gaudy spectacle: even 'the chariot waits:' but Zelikah, having something else in her thoughts than idle pageantry, feigns illness:

— The wife of Potiphar complains
 Of faint and sickly symptoms : much she fears
 The sun's intense and dangerous heat, and dreads
 The pressure of the multitude, excluding
 Sweet Aura's genial breath. Full loath alone
 With vows of health and love her spouse departs.
 ' The midday sun had past, when household cares
 Requir'd the youthful steward to attend
 Within the noble mansion. Suddenly,
 Before him Zelikah appears. How changed !
 From her so gay in gesture, look, and grace !
 A plain white robe her person loosely folds ;
 A kerchief of like color wraps her head :
 Falt'ring in speech, in manner agitated ;
 Fled from her face the rose ; downcast her eye ;
 She now addresseth him. " Nay, start not, Joseph !
 'Tis Zelikah thou seest, and more than ever
 Thy Zelikah ; for thou hast made her thus !
 Oh ! turn not from me, Joseph ! here's no witness
 To see my love, or thy ingratitude !
 And wouldst thou kill me ? sure it cannot be !
 Am I alone to feel thy cruelty ?
 Ah ! no ; thy nature's kind and good. Come, come,
 This is my chamber ; there I'll hear thy plea :
 There, all is hush ! my curtains' cooling shade
 Shall safely shelter us, and exclude the day ;
 There, from each prying eye, and busy tongue,
 Not e'en a whisper shall escape to hurt
 The fame of Potiphar, thine upright mind,
 Or bring disgrace upon the God thou serv'st."
 " I pray thee, lady, leave me !" Joseph saith ;
 " Thou art my master's wife ; and every voice,
 Divine and human, thro' these empty walls
 Now tells it in mine ear ! Th' all-searching eye
 Of Heaven's God this moment seeth us,
 Nor closest covering, nor midnight darkness,
 Nor Death itself can hide us from his view !"
 ' No more availeth Reason's sacred voice,
 Than the cool shower on Ætna's awful head
 Allays his fires : bursts forth redoubled rage
 In Zelikah, commingling in one flame
 Each sense divine, of law, religion, self.
 " Joseph !" she cries, " I think not but of thee !
 Thou art my all, if I be thine ! if not,
 Eternal hatred and revenge shall sink
 Thy name, thy character ; till in one ruin
 I bury thee, and His all-boasted fame,
 Whom, thou, to serve pretending, spurnest me."
 " Oh ! wife of Potiphar, recall your words !
 Recall your thoughts !" and, fervently, his soul
 To pity sighs, ere Virtue proves its faith ;

" If it be needful, every worldly chance,
 Friends, profit, reputation, I resign,
 Than sin against my God !" Struggling he tries
 To free his person from her frenzied hold ;
 Yet, firmly, clasp her hands the flowing robe,
 Staying his flight, which he perceiving, looses
 The bands that hold it. Empty in her hand
 The garment falls, and Joseph flees at once,
 Without the aid of violence. Now bursts
 Her madden'd fury — " Fly, then, to thy God !
 But I'll pursue thee. This shall sink thy fame
 In endless infamy ! This shall attest
 Thy baseness ! — Help ! — help ! " — With loud shrieks she
 calls,

Unceasing ; till each female slave, dismiss'd
 By plausible pretence, is re-assembled.

' Forth pours the torrent of vindictive rage !
 Th' alarm'd attendants, listening with surprise
 And equal horror, urge her to retire,
 Her frame exhausted : but, as blaze the flames
 Fiercer, while mould'ring falls the building down,
 Flashes her ire with virulence increas'd,
 Till the low slaves without rush in ; to whom
 With indecorous anger, bold she cries —
 " See ! the effects of your kind master's favor !
 He brings an Hebrew here to mock us, puff
 With mimic pride of rule ! He is your lord !
 He would be mine too ! But you heard my screams,
 And then the coward fled, and dropt his cloke.
 See here ! Ye know the badge of office well.
 Go, seize the shameless wretch — this I'll retain
 Till my dear lord come home ! " The men retire.

' Now *protean* passion takes the form of tears,
 Sad sighs, and lifeless faintings. Silently
 Her maids a look exchange, impressive far [more]
 Than many words, and bear her to her chamber.'

According to the account given of this adventure in the Koran, (see Chapter xii.) Zelikah (or *Rail*, as she is sometimes called by the Arabians,) is represented to be as violent in her passion for the young Hebrew, and as much enraged by her disappointment, as she is depicted in the Bible-narrative : but it tells us, moreover, that Zelikah's story was falsified by Joseph's garment being found rent behind ; and that, in her subsequent examination before Pharaoh, she made confession of her own guilt, and attested the innocence of Joseph. Nothing, however, is said of the Egyptian festival in either ; and for this fiction, which is introduced in order to give a sort of dramatic effect to the business, we are indebted to Mr. Lucas, though he professes ' not to avail himself of the licences of poetry,' and disclaims

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all epic daring. In spite of himself, his genius soars above a dull 'family-work adapted to *every one's* reading,' and his fable is not always regulated by calculations of utility. It is a boldness equal to any effort of epic song to dispatch a heavenly messenger to Joseph, while he was in pious meditation, and to transport him on a seraph's wing to the upper regions of the air; whence he obtains, for the space of a quarter of an hour, (see p.164.) a clear view of heaven and of the bottomless pit.*

' The Angel finish'd ; and, with greater ease
Than flies the alighest tenant of the air,
The disembodied soul of Rachel's son
Arose, obedient to the Seraph's call ;
And, swifter than the meteor's course or than
The lightning-flash, pursued its heavenly guide,
O'er royal Memphis, grand with stately towers,
Imperial palaces, and monuments
August, for pleasure's ease, or wisdom's lore,
For Pharaoh's Queens and all the servile pomp,
For Pharaoh's Sages and his mystic Seers.
And next o'er Heliopolis they flew,
Where Temples, votive to the Sun and Moon,
All glorious stood : the first could boast its dome
Of solid gold, resplendent to the view,
As 'twere another sun ; the last display'd,
With silver radiance of reflecting light,
A scarce-diminish'd lustre, as the Moon,
Bright, pallid, soften'd. While they pass along,
Astonish'd Joseph saw the orbs turn dark,
Dimm'd by th' angelic wing's celestial ray.
' Instant their flight—why should Description dwell ?
O'er Egypt's cities, Ethiopia,
Across the southern hemisphere, in line
Direct, straight as the arrow's glance
Tho' swifter far, unto the utmost pole
They flew.
' And, here, the Angel paus'd. At once,
The Earth's firm texture, as he waved his hand,
Expanded to the view : and, lo ! a Gulf
Hideous and horrible ! whence issued forth
Sulphureous flames, and every noxious blast ;
But, at a second motion of the hand,
The hell-born vapor took another course,
Nor rose, but lost within its own wide bounds :
Now in a moment, visible to ken,

* At Vol. i. p. 160. Joseph is directed to notice the *gulf* which separates the 'Regions of the Bless'd' from 'the Bottomless Abyss,' and is told that this gulf is 'a vortex of flames that sucks fell food for the pit :' but the meaning of this passage is beyond the comprehension of our dense intellects.

And clear, e'en like th' expanse æthereal blue,
Appears, what baffles sight, the Dread Abyss,
Bottomless Pit !

' Self-pois'd the youth ; yet still
Grasp'd the calm Seraph's arm, who pointed down ;
And Joseph shudd'ring saw the hapless race
Of humankind condemn'd to penal pains,
Assur'd effect of sin.

' The Angel spake,
" Fear not, thou favor'd Israelite, but use
To thy soul's health these precious moments given.
Are there among the sons of men, whose fame,
Blazon'd from early age, hath reach'd thine ears,
And would'st thou question them ? If, here, their doom
Be fix'd, create thy wish : and, at the thought,
If so it pleaseth Him who knows all thought,
See ! they appear. Yes ; that is Nimrod, he
The mightiest of his day."

' " What was thy sin ?"
The son of Jacob ask'd.

' " Pride and Ambition !"
Replied the soul, " The Great God gave me all ;
And I neglected Him : self-deified,
I now exclaim — Would I had ne'er been born !"

' Question'd no more, the Spectre pass'd away.
But, as he turn'd descending, Joseph saw
Vast burdens fixt behind, on each of which
Flutter'd an open scroll. The Seraph knew,
And thus t' his thoughts replied, " Those are his sins
For ever pressing on him, clearly mark'd,
That he that runs may read. Hence, while himself
Conscience condemns, each may the justice see
Of others' sentence. All made manifest !
No more deceit or plum'd hypocrisy
Shall try t' impose, and mask its worthlessness.
Think'st thou, thine eye can see 'mong yonder group,
Antediluvians they, a lessening heap ?
True, there's no limit to God's *endless* mercy,
Ty'd by no law ; for all He doth is right :
Yet the all-righteous punishment shall be
Eternal, as the crime's remotest trace !"

For invention, this passage has in it something Miltonic ; and were it not for the prosaic lines which negligence has suffered to prevail here, and throughout the work, we should say that Mr. Lucas is occasionally no very unsuccessful imitator of the bard of *Paradise Lost*. He even attempts more than Milton tried to effect ; since, while *he* depicted only the terrestrial Paradise, Mr. Lucas draws back the curtain which hides the future world, and affords a sight of the celestial Paradise. Under the guidance of the angel, Joseph is wafted to a spot from which Heaven opens to his view :

REV. DEC. 1813.

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' Joseph

' Joseph feels virtue's all-protective force,
 And fearless wafts along ; each element
 Of gales soft dews or solar rays bestows
 Ethereal fragrance, vivifying sweets,
 All new delights ! And now they stop. Appears
 A Region beauteous, far beyond whate'er
 Fancy can feign or even Hope imagine !
 " Joseph, extend thine hand," the guide exclaim'd.
 He stretch'd his hand ; and found its progress stay'd.
 Th' Angel—" Behold th' impenetrable wall,
 Thro' which none but the Blessed-ones can pass,
 Surrounded every way, more durable,
 Transparent, and impervious, than e'en
 Idea can conceive of purest gold,
 Crystal, or adamant. O Son of man !
 Thou canst not mete this theme ! Description fails
 If I, exemplifying sacred things,
 Attempt by mundane references to shew
 Similitude : Aye, all of Earth and Heaven,
 Material, animate, no likeness holds,
 More than the weakest taper's light compar'd
 To yon meridian Sun, altho' to thee
 I temper'd not his rays. Remember, youth,
 Criterion none is found for thee to judge
 Of aught thou seest or hear'st." The Angel pass'd
 The sacred barrier, as thro' the waves
 Their native tenants glide ; soon lost to sight ;
 Quickly return'd ; and spake, " Thy view is clear'd.
 Extend thine eyes, and tell me what thou seest ?"

' Glad Joseph answer'd, " I behold mankind
 Employ'd in recreations numberless,
 To me so new and wondrous, I need terms
 To aid expression. Some I see, in groups,
 And some in pleasing converse friend with friend.
 But—how can I express my joy, surprise—
 Each form, distinguish'd not by sex or age,
 Appears in matchless beauty, far beyond
 All knowledge and conception ! and each face
 Beams with delight and happiness ! I seem
 To read their hearts, and I can trace no sign
 Of apprehension, fear, alarm, or doubt,
 Much less of grief or agitating passion.
 Whate'er the mighty blessings these enjoy,
 —Of which, oh ! I've no means to judge—I see
 Their minds conviction feel, that all will be
 As infinite, as full of joy and glory !"
 ' With rapture glow'd his soul. The guide divine
 Smiling ineffable, replied, " It is
 The Blessed Spirit, essence of all truth,
 That gives thee this assurance, earnest faith
 From confidence in God, as if the things
 Believ'd were plain and palpable to sense." '

These views of Heaven and Hell may be deemed not unsuitable to the Epopea, since Homer and Virgil have indulged themselves in conjectures relative to the state of departed souls: but a Christian divine, in a poem professedly religious, ought not to have been guilty of a doctrinal anachronism which confounds the patriarchal with the gospel-dispensation. The book of Genesis affords no intimation of a future state; while it is the grand characteristic of the New Testament that it "brings immortality to light." Howsoever, therefore, these additions to the history of Joseph, with other anachronisms, may display the genius of Mr. Lucas, they cannot be considered as judicious interpolations. To make the angel (see Vol. i. p. 156.) quote a passage from the apostle Paul is a *licentia poetica* which cannot be allowed. In short, we do not perceive the beauty of putting texts of Scripture, Agar's prayer, and even the Ten Commandments, (Vol. ii. p. 327.) into blank verse.

Joseph, on obtaining the favour of Pharaoh, is not only promoted to the highest honours, but is recommended to sweeten life by marriage; and, as the Regent makes his tour through Egypt in order to ascertain the produce of the country, he meets the lovely Asenath, daughter of Potipherah, Prince of Heliopolis, with whom he falls in love. At a subsequent interview, the courtship takes place, and successfully terminates. — With the apostrophe to Wedded Love, from the beginning of the eleventh book, we shall close our extracts:

‘ Hail, Wedded Love! thou bond divine, with life
Coequal! like th’ almighty gift, (sure test
Discriminating ’twixt the humankind,
And every other animal existing
O’er the wide face of this terrestrial globe,)
Blest Reason, who the native barrier
Of instinct overleaps, and towers in strength
Towards endless regions of futurity:
Like Reason, Wedded Love, to all, but man,
Unknown, incomprehensible! God spake
The word: and Nature for superior aid,
Till Reason at thy birth presided, paused.

‘ Hail, Wedded Love! whose origin attests
Th’ ambrosial seat of bliss and innocence!
Hail, Wedded Love! thou union of all joy!
By thee, each blessing’s multiply’d; by thee,
Each evil is diminish’d! Thou connect’st
All kindred bands; and, where thou art not found,
The filial and parental ties fall off,
Their vigor lost, their efficacy fled!

‘ So Fancy fabled genuine Virtue’s zone,
The mystic cestus, by whose magic folds
Were proved the daughters of pure chastity:
Nor beauty, youth, and every grace combined,

Where Modesty is not, can fix the hold ;
 But where she is, the simplest effort thrives,
 The girdle closes, and the clasp is sure.
 ' Hail, Wedded Love ! as erst, in pristine age,
 The patriarch Isaac and Rebecca saw !
 And like as now invites the theme of praise,
 While Pharaoh smiles, and Egypt's realms rejoice,
 And the great God of Heaven His blessing sheds
 On Jacob's son and beauteous Asenath !
 Oh, earthly happiness, beyond all price !
 More rare and precious, than the boasted ores
 Of silver and of gold, than costliest gems,
 Than worldly honors, titles, glory, praise !
 I've mark'd thine entrance 'neath the thatched roof,
 And seen the cot become a Paradise !
 And I've beheld thine inauspicious flight,
 Indignant from the Palace ! What avail
 Its myriads of boasts, rich with each gift
 Of art and nature ! all, at once, away
 The potent influence and mighty charms
 Vanish ! and leave a dreary wilderness,
 Where Circe's beastly shapes insatiate prowl
 By passion guided, tantalizing vice
 Endless pursuing ; vain and foolish hope !
 What magic pleasure shall create the zest,
 That Happiness bestows on mutual Love,
 Sanction'd by Nature's voice, and Reason's law ?

Mr. Lucas is so animated with this subject, that we may fairly conclude he is one of those who enjoy the sweets of matrimony; and, particularly in an age like the present, the view which he has offered of the holy state is calculated to produce a good effect. Throughout, his poem is moral, and addressed to the best feelings of the heart : but it is to be lamented that its merit will not stand so high in a court of criticism as it must in a court of ethics. Much, therefore, as we are inclined to allow praise to Mr. Lucas on the score of classic adaptation, creative fancy, amplification, and episode, we are obliged to confess that his work is not exempt from the usual faults of Scripture-epics, that his verse is often negligent and prosaic, and that he indulges himself in the use of words which are not sanctioned by authority. — On his typical references, we make no other comment than that the poem would have been better without them.

ART. XI. *De l'Allemagne; par Mad. la Baronne de Staël Holstein.*
 Paris. 1810. On Germany, by the Baroness of Staël Holstein.
 3 Vols. 8vo. pp. 360 in each. 1l. 16s. Boards. Reprinted for
 Murray, London. 1813.*

GERMANY is naturally the heart of Europe; and her language instructs thirty millions of men, comprehended south and north between the Alps and the Baltic, east and west between the Weichsel and the Rhine. Never thoroughly consolidated under an aristocratic constitution which left too much independence to the subordinate princes, the country was finally rent in twain by the adverse influence of the Reformation; and the eagle with two heads has never been able to soar, for want of knowing which head to obey.

So great a mass of literary information of all kinds habitually circulates among the Germans, that the people grow ambitious of applying it to the elevation of their social condition, and to the amendment of their public institutions. If an elector of Hanover or Brandenburg, or if a Crown-prince of Sweden or of Denmark, or if a King of Holland or of Saxony, were to offer a protected and political hospitality to delegates of the German people, assembling to connect in lasting union the imperial cities and sovereign counties of the north, such monarch might easily become not only the titled but the practical and hereditary emperor of the entire district north of the Danube. Opinions the most unrestrained have burnt into quick-lime the inner portions of the people; a slight addition of water would now heat the whole to effervescence, and provide for the statuary's mould a plastic but soon stiffening mortar.

On this account, Germany at present is the most important topic of contemplation for the statesman, and the most interesting for the philosopher; and on its re-union, or subdivision, depends the destiny of Europe. Parcelled among Hollanders, Hanoverians, Danes, and Prussians, the north of Germany will be too feeble to defend its own independence; and two of its divisions will necessarily listen to French councils. If consolidated into one mass, amalgamated already by literature, easily combined by representation, and willingly inspired by the philosophic priesthood of those new and bold reformers who have established themselves in the universities and churches of Saxony and Prussia, — such a free people, stretching from the Rhine to the Weichsel, could defend unaided their own territory, would take off the shoulders of Great Britain the perpetual burden of warfare for the independence of Europe,

* An English translation is also published, in the same form and at the same price: but we have not seen it.

and would soon compete with France for the banks of the Rhine, by offering to those who dwell on them a purer legislation.

In the mythology of the antient Persians, the Supreme Intelligence is described as occasionally sending forth benevolent angels to roam about the earth, who ply their wandering wings and examine the homes of men. From the report which they bring back to the throne of light, depends the doom that is allotted by the lord of destiny to entire nations. On rustling pinion, such a spirit now approaches to furnish the account of a benignant mission, — a messenger of instruction in a woman's form.

No gallantry to the sex, no tolerance of taste, no hospitality for the stranger, can be requisite to prompt an enthusiastic applause of the writings of Madame de Staël. In our *xxi*id Volume, N. S. p. 582., we analyzed her *Influence of the Passions*, in our *liv*th Volume, p. 152., her *Corinna*, and in our *lxviii*th Volume, p. 449., her *Essay on Literature*. The present work on Germany displays a maturer judgment and an unfaded fancy. Skilled as she is in knowing where to look and where to overlook, her observations are exhibited with scenic brilliancy: the colouring is every where vivid, the selection of circumstances truly characteristic, and the attention is never invited to frivolous objects nor confused among too many attractive topics. Her pen moves with the grace of conversation, and with the precision of tutored eloquence.

As yet, however, we have read through only the first part, which we are told is the best, — only the 200 pages which relate to the face of the country in Germany, and to the manners of the people. It is in this division of the book, especially, that the fair author displays herself; elsewhere, she is erecting altars to others. We cannot wonder that it has obtained a preference of effect. After having contemplated the vestibule of Agrippa, even the Pantheon may appear unadorned.

The preface relates that the original impression of this work was destroyed by the *lieutenant de police* at Paris, General Savary, now Duke of Rovigo. Previous censors had examined the manuscript, and had struck out some reflections which seemed to be susceptible of personal application or interpretation: but this military reviewer was not contented with the suppression of allusions, which were more frequently imaginary than pointed; he caused the entire edition to be bruised in the paper-mill, and converted into pasteboard. In the British edition before us, the passages suppressed by the Parisian censors are restored, and distinguished by inverted commas: they are not stinging enough to account for such affectation of irritability.

General

General Observations precede the first section. The European nations are classed under the three grand divisions of Latin, Gothic, and Slavonian; and it is justly observed that certain features of civilization, inherited from the Romans, are common to the Italian, Spanish, and French nations, while certain other features of domestic habit and political institution are common to the German, Scandinavian, and English nations. The Slavonians have not yet any literature; their Asiatic tendency is not evolved. Each of these national families is advised to adhere to its original tendency; the southern tribes to pursue a *classical* and the northern tribes a *Gothic* idea of perfection, in manners, literature, and art. Let each seek in its own history the topics, and in its own religion the ornaments, of epic, or dramatic, or picturesque exertion.

Chapter I. describes the Aspect of Germany. Gothic monuments are the only remarkable remains in its cities: but almost every where is found an antiquarian museum, in which suits of armour, and other utensils of the age of chivalry, are preserved and exhibited; in which wooden statues of knights coloured to the life, and clad in real coats of mail, are the leading objects of curiosity. These arsenals of antient weapons have a popular interest, and facilitate the understanding of history.

The second chapter treats of the Manners and Character of the Germans, and divides them into the two grand classes of Austrian or Catholic Germans, and Prussian or Protestant Germans. In the north, and along the Elbe, the Protestant spirit prevails; in the south, and along the Danube, the Catholic. The sluggishness, the contemplative character, and the musical passion of the Germans, are common to both divisions.

Chapter III. treats of the Women.

‘The German women,’ says the author, p. 37., ‘have a charm peculiar to themselves, an affecting tone of voice, fair hair, and a brilliant complexion. They are modest, but less timid than the English women: they seem not so frequently to have met with men superior to themselves, and they have also less to fear from the severity of public criticism. They seek to please by sensibility, and by interesting the imagination; the dialect of poetry and of the fine arts is on their tongues; and they coquet with enthusiasm, as in France with archness. The perfect good nature, which distinguishes the German character, renders love less dangerous to the happiness of the sex; and perhaps they indulge this sentiment the more readily because either disdain or infidelity is little to be dreaded.

‘Love is a religious duty in Germany, but it is a poetical religion which too readily tolerates whatever sensibility can excuse. It must not be denied that the great facility of divorce in Protestant Germany has shaken the sanctity of matrimony. People change husbands and wives as if they were arranging the incidents of a drama; the

habitual temper of the men and women mingles no bitterness with these easy ruptures; and, as among the Germans more imagination than real passion always prevails, the oddest events happen with a singular tranquillity. By such incidents, however, morals recede from purity, and characters from dignity; and the spirit of paradox is encouraged to proclaim sophisms against the most sacred institutions, until all that remains of rectitude seems itself disorderly.'

The fourth chapter treats on the Influence of the Spirit of Chivalry on Love and Honor. Our age of chivalry answers to the heroic times of the antients; and our writers of fiction should seek in them analogous themes. Of this the German poets are aware; and their *minnesinger*, or minstrels, are always inspired by patriotism, or religion. The crusades united the gentlemen of all countries, and converted the spirit of chivalry into a sort of European patriotism, which favoured every where the church and the aristocracy, and thus established the feudal system. Insensibly, the church separated from the aristocracy, and re-attached itself to the regal order. In France, under Cardinal Richelieu, this revolution was accomplished, or rather consummated; and the nobility, from an independent order, became courtiers. In Germany, however, as soon as the church was beginning to marshal round the imperial power, and to desert the subordinate princes, the nobility encouraged a Protestant reform, and propped their own independence on the spoils of the church. Hence the duration of the feudal system in Germany. To the spirit of chivalry, as an European passion, has succeeded, in the opinion of Madame de Staël, the pursuit of political liberty. It is become the sacred fire, the concealed but unextinguished object of worship in every respectable household: it is the loud wish of the poet, and the secret purpose of the hero. 'Nothing great,' says the author in the concluding sentence of this chapter, 'will henceforth be done in Germany, but through that liberal impulse which has taken the place of chivalry in Europe.'

In the fifth chapter is described South Germany in general; and the sixth chapter, which was written in 1808, is devoted to Austria in particular. It is full of acute observation exquisitely expressed. We tremble in attempting to translate.

'In Austria there are many excellent things, but few excellent men; it answers little purpose there to surpass another; since that superiority does not produce envy, but neglect, as if in order to discourage intrusion on rank. Ambition perseveringly trudges on in the road to place: but genius does not meet with refreshment soon enough to keep up its speed. Genius, in the midst of society, is a gnawing pain, an inward fever, against which we should seek remedies as for a disease, did not glory atone for its sufferings.

'In Austria, and in the rest of Germany, all pleading is conducted in writing, not aloud. The preachers are attended because religious obser-

observances are in vogue : but they do not attract by their eloquence. Plays are neglected, especially tragedies. The administration is conducted with great prudence and justice : but so much method prevails in every thing, that we hardly discover the influence of man. Affairs are managed according to a certain order of numbers, which nothing deranges ; the rules are invariable which bestow precedence ; and every thing passes in profound silence, a silence not the effect of terror ; for what can excite fear in a country in which the virtues of the monarch corroborate the equitable habits of the courts ? — but the effect of that profound repose of soul which would take no interest in verbiage. The business of existence goes on by clock-work, which is neither stopped nor hurried by crime or by genius, by intolerance or by enthusiasm, by selfish passions or by heroism. During the last century, the Austrian cabinet passed for cunning, which is not much in the German character, and was possibly that alternation of ambition and weakness which is so frequently mistaken for profound policy. History almost always attributes both to individuals and to governments more combinations of consequences than were contemplated.'

Chapter VII. describes Vienna, or, as the Germans call it, Wien : its *Prater*, or public walk, is the chief object of attraction. The eighth sketches the face of society there, which is politely but satirically taken off. The ninth censures the imitators of the French, and prefers a native to a copied manner. The tenth and eleventh chapters treat of the prominent character of German conversation ; and the twelfth examines the German language. Here terminates the description of Catholic or Austrian Germany.

Perhaps Madame de Staël is rather too fond of generalizing, of expressing in abstract terms the collective impression of repeated phenomena, and of moralizing when she might depict. This perpetual substitution of her own inferences, for those which the reader would have drawn from the same facts, transmits indeed the impressions of a superior mind, but not always accompanied with a conviction of their justice, of their being founded on adequate observation. By throwing into the form of narrative those incidents which led to the reflections, the fancy would have been more agreeably occupied and the judgment more steadily convinced.—Monuments of architecture are passed by with inattention. Is Gothic art too barbarous for the contemplation of a Parisian critic ? With Madame de Staël's system, she ought to have considered Gothic architecture, like romantic poetry and the Christian religion, as native or congenious tastes of the modern European, which it becomes him to refine and not to reject. Was Gothic architecture modelled on that of the temple of Jerusalem ? Do we still see in it the pointed, or palm-tree, arches, and the roof of network, and the pomegranate capitals, and the cherubic caryatids, which

which are described in the Bible? Was it not moreover first imitated in the tabernacles of the pristine Christians, then on the grand scale at Constantinople by the establishers of Christianity, then handed over to Ravenna, and made at length fashionable in the European north by the Gothic king Theodoric? And is an antient architecture, at once the cradle of our faith and the mausoleum of our works, to be held in doubtful estimation? Who could bear to see the remains of Godfrey of Bouillon deposited in a temple of the Grecian style? Give their Pantheon to the polytheists: but, where loyalty, religion, and nobility, were passions of the Heart, let it moulder in a Gothic aile, surrounded by badges of every reminiscence to which it clung.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XII. *An Appeal to the Imperial Parliament, upon the Claims of the seeded Colony of Trinidad, to be governed by a Legislature and Judicature founded on Principles sanctioned by Colonial Precedents and long Usage: with Observations thereon, intimately connected with the Political and Civil Interests of all the British West-India Colonies.* By John Sanderson, Esq. Barrister-at-Law. 8vo, pp. 260. 7s. 6d. sewed. Richardson. 1812.

IT has been often advanced, as an argument that the commencement of the French war was involuntary on the part of Mr. Pitt, that a dereliction of peace was adverse to his favourite schemes for national improvement; and, could he have foreseen one-tenth part of the mischiefs that were destined to arise from our twenty years' contest, he would probably have preferred the alternative of a resignation to the self-reproach of lending the sanction of his authority to so destructive a course of hostility. Among the innumerable evils attendant on the absorption of the time and attention of ministers in military affairs, we are obliged to reckon the neglected and distressed state of the island of Trinidad. Sixteen years have now elapsed since its conquest, and to the present day they have not determined whether it shall be governed by British or Spanish law: although this long period has been passed in an anxious expectation on the part of the colonists, that their uncertainty would at some time be terminated. Mr. Sanderson is commissioned, we understand, to plead for the introduction of British law into this much injured settlement; and, by way of making the case more easily understood, he has taken the course of printing a statement of the claims in question. His pamphlet, dry and diffuse as it is, seems to us of sufficient interest to be intitled to an exposition in the form of an abstract: from which

which our readers will perceive the unfortunate succession of the temporary expedients that have been hitherto adopted for the administration of justice in Trinidad, and be enabled to form a conjecture as to the cause of the extraordinary delay on the part of our government.

Before the conquest of Trinidad, it was the practice in that colony to carry appeals to the high tribunal called the Royal "Audiencia" at Caraccas; and the vicinity of this court, with the familiarity of the Spanish lawyers with the different compilations of laws in force throughout Spanish America, supplied, in some measure the serious inconveniences arising from the want of an adequate tribunal in the island. Trinidad possessed no regular Judge, the governor officiating in that capacity, with the aid of an *assessor*, a civil lawyer of approved knowledge; to whose interpretation of the colonial code the governor was bound to adhere, unless he chose to take the responsibility on himself. The separation of Trinidad from Spain, however, deprived it of the appeal to Caraccas, and produced a complete anomaly in the administration of justice. Our first step was to appoint, in 1797, a chief Judge; who was empowered to proceed, in all causes, without an assessor, and instructed to abridge, as much as he could, the shameful expence and delay which had hitherto attached to law-proceedings. Indeed, of all West-India settlements, Trinidad was most in want of an expeditious administration of justice, as it had been for some time a place of emigration for fraudulent debtors, and even for fugitive slaves from our own colonies. Still, as our Judge was restricted to Spanish law, his personal wish was not sufficient to accelerate the administration of justice. Its tardy progress was first experienced by those British merchants who had been too free in their advances, and desired to recall a part of them: but they found it necessary to incur one delay after another, in a stage of a cause in which an English suit at common law would generally be terminated. After having gone so far as to obtain a return on a writ of execution, it is necessary, in Spanish law, to issue three public notices, and to allow a month to pass before farther proceedings. In other cases, when a plaintiff is flattering himself with the prospect of a successful termination of his labours, a third party may come forwards and put in a plea of prior interest; which, though eventually unsuccessful, may procure for the defendant a farther delay of one or two years. Again, when opposition is at an end, the Spanish law prohibits the sale of a debtor's property, otherwise than under conditions which have often the effect of compelling the plaintiff to take possession of the property against his will. In such circumstances, law-proceedings an-

swer scarcely any other purpose than that of establishing a claim.

The discovery of these endless delays in the recall of money had soon the effect of cooling the ardour of the home-merchant in making loans to planters, and the progress of the colony was in consequence much retarded : but nothing was done to remedy the evil until the cession of Trinidad by the peace of Amiens. At that epoch, a Cabildo, or council of a few leading persons, was appointed, with whom the Governor was "required to consult and advise," but with leave to act contrary to their opinion when he thought fit, and even to *change the members* on assigning cause to ministers at home. Next came the plan of putting the government of the island in commission, by the joint nomination of three officers, Colonel Fullarton, Colonel Picton, and Sir Samuel Hood ; a measure which was productive, as is well known, of the most unfortunate divisions. This was a lesson to ministers to avoid separating the military from the civil authority ; and both were accordingly combined in the next governor, Major-General Hislop, whose mild and judicious administration tended greatly to tranquillize the colony. With regard to the distribution of justice, a court called the "Consulado" (a kind of commercial court) now came into operation, and professed to pass decisions by the rules of equity ; which is little else than a declaration to practice without *any* rule. The want of the superior tribunal of Caraccas was now again felt ; and Governor Hislop, finding much opposition to the "Consulado," resorted to the plan of 1797, and renewed the appointment of a single judge. It was at this time, (1806,) that law-proceedings were first conducted in the English language, and by English lawyers : but the decisions still continued without fixed principles, and the power of appealing to the Cabildo or council of the island was ridiculous, because that body possessed very little legal knowledge. Still there were persons, (and among them the attorney-general of the island, Mr. Gloster,) who, from whatever motive, were so enamoured of existing institutions as to oppose the public wish for a representative assembly on the plan of our other colonies ; and to recommend the imposition of taxes by persons not *elected by the people*. So strange a course called forth a strong petition from the majority of the inhabitants, for the introduction of English law.

Government now determined to steer a middle course, by establishing a tribunal in Trinidad with the authority of the royal "Audiencia" of Caraccas ; and Mr. George Smith, a Judge already known in the Windward islands, was appointed to act under the new commission. He was directed to regulate him-

self by the Spanish law: but the combination of various powers in his person opened a prospect of terminating the miserable delays hitherto experienced; and an appeal to our Privy-council was allowed in cases involving sums above 500*l*. Mr. Smith entered on office in May 1809, and made great progress in clearing the arrears of court: but, unfortunately, disputes ere long arose between him and the Cabildo. His decisions, likewise, with regard to priority of mortgages and other points of law between debtor and creditor, were in some cases grounded on edicts that were accounted obsolete, and were productive of considerable alarm. By way of giving additional authority to decisions founded on Spanish law, Mr. Smith invited a legal assistant from Caraccas, whom he appointed to the office of "relator" in his court. The Cabildo then obtained a similar assistant, and employed him under the name of "assessor;" and, some time afterward, having come to open variance with Mr. Smith, they persuaded Governor Hislop to send the "relator" off the island on a plea of political disaffection. Mr. Smith was not long behind his antagonists in finding grounds for the suspension of the "assessor;" so that both parties were deprived of the aid of their Spanish coadjutors. The Governor and Cabildo now proceeded to take the decisive step of limiting Mr. Smith's functions to appeal-cases; when that gentleman, disdaining to submit to this restricted jurisdiction, left the island, and returned, nearly two years ago, to London.

Among the several claims preferred during this unsettled state of things in Trinidad, none excited more surprise than one on the part of the coloured people. The population of the island stands thus:—Whites, 2617.—Free people of colour, 7043.—Slaves, male and female, 21,143.—Native Indians, 1716.—The governor, having called on the coloured applicants to specify the objects of their wish, received in answer a declaration in the following terms:

" Port of Spain, 7th July, 1810.

"The persons of colour charged with expressing to his Excellency the sentiments of that body, have the honour to say, in answer to your note, that their object (at this moment when a new system of laws are framing for the government of the colony) is to implore the consideration of their sovereign towards the general interests of his coloured subjects, with a view to such a moderate and consistent plan of improvement in their condition, as it may appear susceptible of.

"As they have always considered that any specific claims, or pretensions, on their part, would be highly unbecoming, they have never entertained or encouraged any discussion on such a subject."

The

The answer of government, to the applications from the white inhabitants of Trinidad for the introduction of a representative assembly, contained a pointed reference to the number and the claims of the coloured people. "In our other islands," said Lord Liverpool, (in a letter of 27th Nov. 1810,) "the whites form the great majority of free colonists; and the people of colour are reconciled to the want of participation in political rights. But in Trinidad the latter constitute the majority, and would be dissatisfied with an exclusion of that nature." — Mr. Sanderson sees little force in this objection, and entertains as little apprehension from the claims of the coloured people: but he has no objection to grant to those who possess a specific property the privilege of voting in the election of members of assembly. Such a concession, he thinks, would greatly cement the union between the coloured population and their white neighbours.

Another objection to the introduction of a representative assembly in Trinidad arises from the mixed character of its white population. "It consists," says Lord Liverpool, "of a mixture of all nations, the greater part of whom must be wholly ignorant of the British constitution, and unaccustomed to any frame of government which bears any analogy to it." This argument, observes Mr. Sanderson, (p. 139.) might have been urged with equal propriety in a variety of other cases. The Dutch and Danish West-India settlements have been colonized by "a mixture of people of all nations;" yet each of these countries has found it expedient to govern its colonies by its own laws. Moreover, the British population in Trinidad has now a decided majority, being nearly equal to that of the French and the Spaniards together. Of the three nations, the Spaniards have the least title to a preference with regard to a system of law, their numbers being lower than those of the French.

The third objection urged by Lord Liverpool comes before us under very suspicious circumstances. "The abolition of the slave trade," says his Lordship, "imposes on government the necessity of keeping within itself every power which may be material for rendering this measure effectual. Neither the crown nor parliament should be subject to the embarrassments which might perhaps arise from the conflicting views of the Imperial parliament and of a subordinate legislature. It is essential for this purpose that in a new colony the crown should not divest itself of its power of legislation." Enough, we believe, is conveyed in these words to satisfy most persons as to the real cause of the pertinacity of ministers in refusing British laws to Trinidad. This tender care for the abolition of the slave-trade is something new in the history of our cabinet, and
sounds

sounds wondrously like Bonaparte's solicitude for "the honour of sovereigns, the comfort of families, and the interests of religion." It is perfectly known that our island-assemblies are subject to parliament in every thing except the imposition of local taxes. Why, then, should any greater apprehension be entertained from the subordinate legislature of Trinidad, than from that of any other island? As to a want of negroes, St. Vincent's, Tobago, and Jamaica are all possessed of large tracts of uncultivated soil: but the inhabitants of these islands have learned, like the inhabitants of Trinidad, to qualify their impatience for additional negroes. These negroes, they find, must be bought; and the price of sugar has not been such as to enable them to make the purchase.

It happens, singularly enough, that the mode of levying taxes in Trinidad is unsupported by any law-authority, either British or Spanish; and that the business of the island-government must be greatly impeded by such a want is a fact which has been long ago officially represented to our ministers. To supply this deficiency by the arbitrary assumption of a right in the crown to impose taxes is to revive the odious subject of dispute between us and our North American colonies; and any right of that kind, which might be pretended in the case of Trinidad, before its definitive annexation to the British empire, must be considered as terminated by the peace of Amiens, which incorporated it with our colonies at large. To judge from appearances, we are likely to add, at the next Peace, considerably to our stock of colonies; and it will be new in the history of our constitution to find so remarkable a difference between one class of settlements and another. Sixteen years (as we have already stated) have now elapsed since Trinidad has been without a regular judicature, and since the power of the Governor has had any other check than that of a council of *advisers*! What are the public to infer from such delay, except that ministers do not choose to give the island the benefit of British law, lest this change should encourage the expectation of obtaining a representative assembly?—an assembly under which, as we have lately seen in the case of Jamaica, they could not treat the colony altogether as they pleased.

Mr. Sanderson concludes by proposing (p. 206.) a mode of administering justice provisionally in Trinidad, during the interval requisite for accomplishing the introduction of a definitive system; and he subjoins an appendix explanatory of the many improveable qualities of the island, with a view to cultivation and commerce. A canal, it is said, (appendix, p. 4.) might be cut through the centre of the island, at little expence, and with a certainty of great advantage: while much assistance, in the

way of labour, might be reaped (p. 14.) from the encouragement of Peons, or emigrants from the Spanish main. These are a class of free labourers who are accustomed to the climate, are satisfied with the plainest diet, and are a hardy race, fitted to perform much of the rough work which is necessary for the improvement of a new colony. Were the interior of Trinidad brought into cultivation, it might become (appendix, p. 16.) a kind of provision-plantation for our other islands. The motive of government, in directing the conquest of it, was probably to gain an approach to the markets of Spanish America; and, though we have now learned to estimate them somewhat more moderately than in former years, the possession of this island presents advantages of a solid character, which a judicious plan of governing would soon develope.

We cannot praise Mr. Sanderson on his merits as an author. He pays so little attention to arrangement, that not a division or chapter-title occurs in the whole pamphlet. His style, also, is surprisingly prolix; and, in recapitulating legal arguments and authorities, he has no mercy on the attention of his readers. He has thus extended to 260 pages a publication which might have been comprised in half the space: or, if he were inflexible as to parting with his professional illustrations, it would have been a great relief to the reader if he had consigned them collectively to the end of the tract, and been contented in the text with references to them as vouchers for his reasoning.

A former publication on the subject of Trinidad was noticed in our Review, Vol. lxxvii. N.S. p. 209. (Feb. 1812.)

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1813.

POLITICS.

Art. 13. *A Letter on the Conduct and Situation of Denmark*, from a Dane to an Englishman, written the 30th of May 1813. 8vo. pp. 48. Richardson.

The writer of this letter professes to speak the sentiments of a private individual, and to be wholly unconnected with the Danish government: but his readers will probably view him in a different capacity, and will scarcely imagine that a private gentleman would take so much pains, or procure access to so much official information, without a more direct object than that which is here acknowledged. The author begins with an emphatic picture of the misfortunes of war, even when undertaken with fair prospects of success. Many years ago, when the Danish ship-owners came to their minister, Count Bernstorff, to complain of the seizures committed by the English

English cruisers, and intreated him to assume a bolder tone, his answer was, "If you want war, I can give it you to-day: but I cannot give you peace to-morrow." A similar feeling prevented the Danish cabinet from taking a part in the successive coalitions against France; and, at the time when circumstances were likely to tempt her from a continuance in such forbearance, she was deterred (says this writer) by the evident want of concert among the greater powers. Indeed, her interference would have been of little avail, the errors of Austria and Prussia being at that time so extraordinary that the tide of events, measured on a large scale, would unavoidably have been the same. Moreover, it is here maintained that, when the English cabinet determined on the capture of the Danish navy, the Danes had taken a firm resolution to make a strenuous effort for the maintenance of its independence against France; and much pains are exerted to shew that the charge brought forwards in a late official pamphlet of the Swedish government, viz. that the Danes were instrumental in overthrowing the unfortunate Schill, is unfounded. At no time, the letter-writer says, did the Danes omit to exert themselves to the utmost in support of the independence of their limited territory; and it is a remarkable fact that they alone, of all the nations within the reach of the compulsion of Bonaparte, sent no auxiliaries to the invasion of Russia.

The remainder of the pamphlet is occupied with a declaration of the readiness of Denmark to treat with the allies in the last spring, and with expressing regret that they sanctioned the cession of Norway to Sweden. We are now, says the author, in a situation that is not of our own chusing, and what we suffer in our hearts is not the least part of our unhappiness. — The letter is, on the whole, written with fairness, and will make every considerate reader anxious to hear that the arrangements of the allies have been such as to grant peace to Denmark, on terms proportioned rather to the secret wishes of the nation, and of the government, than to the hostile course which recent events have obliged them to hold. No part of our national conduct is so questionable as the seizure of the Danish navy; and, amid the discussions attendant on the settlement of the terms of peace between the Danes and the allies, it is fit to remember that, in the month of May, the former advanced to defend Hamburg against the French, and withdrew only on hearing that no hope remained to them of a pacific accommodation with England.

Art. 14. *Letters on the Poor Laws*, shewing the Necessity of bringing them back nearer to the Simplicity of their Ancient Provisions, especially with regard to Settlements, as well for the Relief of the Rates, as for the Comfort and Moral Character of the Poor themselves. By Sir Egerton Brydges, K. I. M. P. for Maidstone. 8vo. pp. 65. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1813.

It affords us much satisfaction to see gentlemen of rank and property directing their attention to the relief of the poor, and to the reform of a system which, it is admitted on all sides, stands much in need of amendment. The present pamphlet consists of a series of letters from Sir Egerton Brydges to a clerical friend, on the means

of improving the condition of the poor. Sir E. begins by expressing regret at the necessity, on the present plan, of removing a family requiring parochial aid from a spot on which it may have resided for years and formed all its connections, to a distant place, where the means of living are to be sought in the work-house. He is desirous of dividing the burthen of the poor between the two parishes, and of facilitating by several new arrangements the obtaining of a settlement. To the system of work-houses, he is totally averse; and in this aversion he has the cordial acquiescence of his correspondent, who maintains that it would be incomparably cheaper for the public to discontinue all such establishments. Four shillings a-head per week are, he says, a low average of the cost of a pauper in a work-house; yet, in every instance, the poor would be more than satisfied with a considerably less sum in their own habitations. This, it seems, is universally allowed: but the directors of parish-meetings continue partial to poor-houses, because they hang over the poor *in terrorem*, and make them afraid to ask relief. — If evils arise from poor-houses on the old plan, viz. one for a parish, much more are caused by the act of the 22d Geo. III., known by the name of Gilbert's act, which empowered any number of parishes, not more than ten miles distant from a work-house, to throw their poor into this general receptacle. A diameter of twenty miles in a populous quarter is a formidable extent; and an example, it is said, (p. 11.) has been known of *sixty parishes* partaking in the associated rights of one building. In such a case, the power over this establishment is not vested in the magistrates, but in the guardians elected by each parish, and in a visitor elected by the guardians. Sir E. B.'s correspondent gives an example of paupers (p. 14.) being under the necessity of travelling, or sending, *twenty-one miles* to the visitor. The interior management of these associated houses is not better than their constitution in other respects. The aged have no preference over the young and active in point of accommodation, so that the former are exposed to suffer greatly from cold, and from want of convenient places of rest; and, being personally unknown to the managers of the work-house, the honest and meritorious invalid is deprived of many little comforts which would be given to him without hesitation in his own parish.

Sir Egerton and his friend cannot avoid lamenting that lawyers in general prove such very indifferent legislators: but they are perfectly agreed in adopting Sir S. Romilly's arguments for the diminution of capital punishments. The great check to crime is found in the certainty, not the severity, of the chastisement. — They are advocates for penitentiary-houses, on the principle that, as offences are generally committed by men who will not work voluntarily, work should be a part of their punishment. They coincide likewise respecting the inadequacy of the present price of country-labour. The landholders and farmers are afraid to raise it, because in the event of peace the price of corn would fall, while they would find a difficulty, perhaps an impracticability, in lowering the rate of wages; and, under this impression, they are willing to pay large poor-rates, as a burthen which will naturally decrease whenever the maintenance of a family

family can be defrayed out of the current wages of the country. Sir E. B. and the clergyman are apprized of Mr. Arthur Young's recommendation to pay wages according to the market-value of so much wheat, and consider that it would be a material improvement on the present mode.

This pamphlet lays no claim to the character of accurate composition, the author having printed the letters from the originals, which were written and sent by the post on "the spur of the occasion;" and he considers it as of more importance to exhibit the impression on the minds of the writers resulting from actual experience, than to argue in favour of a studied theory. He proposes a more extended work in a series of essays; and, though we cannot agree with him on the propriety of sending to press the effusions of the moment, we have found a number of useful suggestions in this publication, and should be happy to see them incorporated into our system.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 15. *An Historical and Architectural Essay relating to Redcliffe Church, Bristol*: illustrated with Plans, Views, and Architectural Details: including an Account of the Monuments, and Anecdotes of the eminent Persons interred within its Walls. Also an Essay on the Life and Character of Thomas Chatterton. By J. Britton, F.S.A. 8vo. 16s. and 4to, 24s. pp. 52. Longman and Co. 1813.

Indefatigable in antiquarian research, Mr. Britton has fulfilled, by the publication of this volume, a long standing promise to his readers. For the delay attendant on its compilation, he apologizes in his preface, by confessing that his ardour for his favourite pursuit frequently carries him beyond the line of discretion, and leads him to undertake perhaps too many new works. The present, small as it is, has exposed him to considerable trouble and expence, but has at the same time afforded a pleasant evidence of the obliging disposition of different literary men, to whom he expresses his grateful acknowledgements. He hopes that the subject will not cause him to be numbered among the twiflers who devote their time and labour to frivolous objects; since the church of St. Mary, Redcliffe, is so elegant in point of execution, and possesses so many attractions from poetical association, that the history and description of the edifice have a claim to the attention of the man of general literature, as well as of the architect and antiquary.

Antient as this structure is, its design gives evidence of an attention to geometrical principles: loftiness, likewise, and variety, are its marked characteristics. Ornaments abound both internally and externally, but they are not so prominent or obtrusive as in the gorgeous chapels of King's-college at Cambridge and Henry VII. at Westminster. The usual approach to it is through a narrow and unpleasant street, but the stranger is amply rewarded on finding at the close of his walk the street expanding, the ground rising, and a towering edifice elevated on the brow of a natural terrace: which ascent has made it necessary to have a flight of many steps from the level in

front to the pavement of the church. These and a variety of other particulars are described in Mr. B.'s second chapter, and made perfectly clear by the numerous plates which are appropriated to an explanation of the subject. The date of the erection of this interesting edifice is placed at the end of the thirteenth century.

One of Mr. B.'s chapters is appropriated to anecdotes of the persons who have been interred, or have had monuments erected to them, in this church; and, in his concluding chapter, he has attempted an essay on the life, character, and writings of Chatterton. He has no hesitation in considering the disputed poems as the production of the hapless youth, and maintains (p. 36, 37.) that no particular difficulty opposed his finding time to acquire the curious knowledge which is displayed in them. When at school, and still more at the attorney's office, where he remained for three years, he had great intervals of leisure, which he no doubt employed in couching his imitations of popular compositions in the obsolete language of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. A cursory acquaintance with Speght, Stowe, and Camden, a partial recollection of Saxon genealogy, and of one or two antient chronicles, were, in Mr. B.'s opinion, all the materials that were requisite to the accomplishment of the forgery. The minute enumeration of the Norman names in the "*Battle of Hastings*" may be explained by supposing Chatterton to have copied them from Fuller's Church-History; while the Saxon names, not being so easily attainable, are but sparingly interspersed. He had access, it is known, to a translation of Camden; from which he appears to have taken many of the names and facts enumerated by Mr. Byrant as beyond the research of a school-boy.

Mr. Britton concludes his volume with two letters hitherto unpublished from Chatterton to Dodsley, written at the age of sixteen, and affording an unpleasant evidence of the early cunning of this singular youth. 'His vices and his errors,' says Mr. B., 'were the natural result of ardent passions, undirected by any motive but the immediate gratification of the passing hour. Had his fate been less premature, a mind like his could not have failed to have discovered the folly of that pride which finds its chief gratification in singularity.'

The plates accompanying this volume are unusually well executed

Art. 16. *Memoirs of Margaret de Valois, Queen of Navarre*; the first Wife of Henry IV. of France, commonly called the Great; containing the secret History of the Court of France for seventeen Years; viz. from 1565 to 1582, during the Reigns of Charles IX. and Henry III. Including a full Account of the Massacre of the Protestants, on St. Bartholomew's Day. Written by Herself, in a Series of Letters. Translated from the original French, with a Preface and Geographical Notes, by the Translator. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 491. 12s. Boards. Robinson. 1813.

These memoirs appeared in France in the year 1618, soon after the death of their real or ostensible author, who was of the Royal family, and was born in 1553. She became at an early age the wife of Henry of Navarre, afterward Henry IV. of France: but no part of her memoirs relates to the period subsequent to the accession of that monarch to the crown of France, and they come down only to 1582, which

which was sixteen years prior to the dissolution of her marriage with the King. They begin with an account of her education, and of the attempts made to convert her to protestantism, which she is represented as resisting with great constancy. We are next introduced to the secret history of the French court under Charles IX. and Henry III., in which the frightful massacre of St. Bartholomew's day occupies a prominent figure.

Our readers are sufficiently apprized that the French booksellers are very dextrous in manufacturing memoirs of persons of consequence; and it happens somewhat oddly that the present, though written in the epistolary form, came out of the French editor's hands in no other division than that of three books; a plan on which the English translator has improved by subdividing the three into twenty-one, giving them the name of letters, and prefixing to each a table of contents. He is careful to warn us against an English translation made so far back as the year 1658, under the high sounding title of "The Grand Cabinet Councils unlocked." Without discussing the merits of these rival compositions, we shall merely observe that the latter part of Queen Margaret's life was passed in seclusion at the castle of Uszon, an antient edifice which was demolished in the year 1634; and that the memoirs relate less to the general politics of the kingdom than to personal anecdote, in which respect they will gratify those who wish to view the interior of courts.

L A W.

Art. 17. *A Digested Index to the Nisi Prius Reports*, with Notes and References. By James Manning, of Lincoln's Inn. Royal 8vo. pp. 344. 16s. Boards. Clarke and Son. 1813.

We have declared ourselves to be in favour of Nisi Prius reports, not so much with the view of their being quoted as authorities as on account of their tendency to exalt and purify our tribunals, and to render their decisions more able and impartial. When the cases are reported, it is not merely the audience which is witness to the judgments pronounced, but the public and posterity are made conversant with them. — Although the decisions collected in the present volume are worthy of the eminent persons by whom they were made, perhaps the trouble of reducing them into a digest might have been spared, and reserved for adjudications of greater solemnity: but, if such a task were to be undertaken, it ought to be executed in the correct and able manner in which it is here performed. Mr. Manning's arrangement leaves nothing to desire, since it proceeds on a correct and strictly scientific analysis. This analysis, and the neat statements of the heads, will render the work instructive to tyros. Mr. Manning has shewn ability and bestowed pains which are worthy of a higher object.

Art. 18. *A Statement of the Law of Tithes*, on the following Heads: Agistment, Turnips, &c. Gardens, Moduses, as to Milk, Calves, and Foals. By T. N. Parker, Esq. A. M. 8vo. pp. 36. Lackington and Co. 1813.

This tract consists of papers which made their first appearance in the Salopian journal, and were in answer to pamphlets that had some

local interest. They contain the author's notions of the law of tithes, as it relates to the several matters mentioned in his title-page. He combats objections, and supports his own positions by references to decided cases, *dicta*, and opinions of counsel: but, though his observations are thrown somewhat into the form of law-arguments, they seem to be intended for the public, and not for the tribunals. Mr. P. does not appear to be aware of the vast differences between the several kinds of evidence which he produces; and, if on some points we agree with him, he contends for others which we deem very questionable, and on which we would not hazard a suit in the Exchequer without taking farther legal advice. We have more immediately in our eye his opinion with respect to the tithe of gardens.

Art. 19. *The Opinions of different Authors upon the Punishment of Death.* Selected by Basil Montagu, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 453. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Scarcely had we noticed the second volume of this well intended and valuable collection, in our Number for July last, when a third made its appearance, which we now announce to our readers. The humane editor continues to display equal diligence and judgment in selecting his authorities. Among the persons whose sentiments on this great question are given in the present volume, we find the names of Gilbert Wakefield, Hume, Cowper, Dr. Gourloy, Sir James Mackintosh, Barrow, Bentham, Whitfield, Judge Wilson, Evelyn, Eden, and Lord Kaimes.

It is justly observed by the editor in his preface, 'that there appear to be four questions of the utmost importance in the formation of any system of penal law: viz. — 1. Do men love cruel laws? — 2. Is the case with which a crime may be committed a justification for any and what augmentation of the punishment? — 3. Ought the passion of anger to have any and what influence in criminal legislation? — 4. How does punishment chiefly operate in the prevention of crime?'

On each of these points, a few judicious observations are inserted in the body of the volume.

The friends of humanity are greatly indebted to the worthy editor, for his repeated endeavours to keep the public attention alive to the matters treated in the valuable compilations on which his industry has been so laudably employed.

POETRY.

Art. 20. *Poems*, by Three Friends. Crown 8vo. 7s. boards. Underwood. 1813.

Such a poetical combination as this volume exhibits is not very common; and, all things considered, we are not sure that it is very desirable. For the purpose of making a book, it may be convenient to a friendly trio to club their respective Parnassian commodities; but, as taste and genius vary, the mass thus compounded will probably be heterogeneous. If, however, they resolved on embarking in this sort of partnership, they ought to have affixed discriminating marks to their respective productions; because, willing as they may be equally to share the praise or the blame which this volume may receive, it is impossible for others to give such a general character to the miscellany as will apply to all the authors, and the writer of the worst poem cannot take

take to himself the encomium which is passed on the best. We are given to understand that the pieces here presented to the public are the production of three friends, who, in the early part of life, cultivated the Muse; and who, before they quitted her pleasant paths to engage in serious and laborious professions, were desirous of constructing 'a wreath of poetical wild flowers, which, though it may never bloom as a guerdon of fame, may live through its little day, a simple memorial of their friendship.' The motive is amiable, and these three friends may be complimented on their fingering of the lyre, as well as on their attachment to each other: but the incongruity of their poetic taste must strike the reader.—We have hymns for a Fast-day, and on the Unsearchableness of the Deity; we have also amatory effusions; translations of the Psalms, of Ossian, and of Horace. *Jesus*, in one place, is invoked to sway his gentle sceptre; and *Anna* is the goddess of idolatry in another. We take notice of this circumstance, for the sake of remarking that the doctrines of our faith and the language of passion should be kept as distinct as possible; and that a volume which opens with a solemn and sublime Hymn to the Deity ought not to have its subsequent contents made up of pieces which are light and trifling. The poem intitled 'The Balm for every Wound' may proceed from the same pen which produced the Address to the Deity: but the translations from Horace are probably derived from another. From the partiality for Ossian which is here manifested, from *road* (at p. 94.) being made to rhyme to *trod*, and from other marks, we should suppose that these poems were written in the northern part of the island.—As no distinction is affixed to any of the pieces, we could not be sure, if we were to transcribe three compositions, that we should furnish a specimen of the lyric powers of each of these young bards. A long introduction, with moralizing reflections on the Seasons, introduces the miscellany; and its merit as a poem may be estimated from this short passage:

' Nor this the only lesson read,
When Autumn's leaves are withered;
As fall they round us one by one,
Their death may warn us of our own.'

We object to the rhymes, in this introduction, of *run* and *gone*; *upon* and *own*;—as well as of *falter* and *Calder*; of *home* and *dooms*; &c. in the body of the work. The young man who has cultivated the religious Muse, and has written the Hymns to the Deity, will be recognized in the following contemplative lines:

— ' Then, at the close of sorrow's day,
May Mercy chase the storm away;

' And bright, amid serenest skies,
The morning-star of Jesse rise;
Direct my view to scenes above,
In patient hope, and heavenly love;
From death the erring spirit save,
And guide to bliss beyond the grave.'

To a second writer, we assign the translations from *Horace*.— We transcribe the version of Book I. Ode xiv., which is at least tolerably faithful :

‘ TO THE REPUBLIC.

- O ship ! shall hostile waves again
Impel thee backward to the main ?
Wilt thou thy dangerous course pursue,
Nor bravely seize the port in view ?
Bereft of oars, thy naked sides
Can ill resist the raging tides ;
Thy mainyards * groan upon the mast,
All shattered in the southern blast,
And scarcely can the assaulted keel
Check the rocked vessel’s rapid reel ;
Thy cords * are broke, thy canvas torn,
No guardian Gods thy deck adorn,
To whom, in hours of anxious care,
The soul might breathe its votive prayer.
Though hewed from Pontus’ lofty pine,
You proudly boast the illustrious line,
And trust an idle name can save
Your wreck from the devouring wave ;
No painted stern, a gaudy toy,
Gives to the timid seaman joy.
O, scorn not the tempestuous wind !
But leave the treacherous deep behind !
- O thou, of late my toil and care !
For thee I breathe the ardent prayer ;
For thee, with patriotic zeal,
This faithful breast must ever feel ;
May’st thou escape the dangerous seas,
Amongst the shining Cyclades !

Of the lighter effusions, we select that which is intitled

‘ THE HARP OF LOVE.

- Gay were the scenes of Life with me,
My prospects fair as budding Spring,
When into rudest melody,
I first awoke thy dulcet string,
Sweet Harp of Love !
- Rude were thy notes ’tis true, and wild,
So rudely wild that few could praise,
Enough for me, Palemon smiled,
And Leila’s lips approved thy lays,
Sweet Harp of Love !
- Changed are the scenes of Life with me—
Low in the grave Palemon lies,

* We never heard of more than one main-yard to one ship ;
nor does a sailor ever talk of *cords*. — (Rev.)

And Leila's false inconstancy,
Has hushed thy sprightlier melodies,
Sweet Harp of Love !

• Since mute for ever is the voice
That praised my minstrel-wiles so long,
Since Leila owns another choice,
Nor longer heeds thy warbled song,
Sweet Harp of Love !

• Till changed Life's dreary scene with me,
And gay again its Spring shall smile,
No longer can thy symphony
My bosom of its cares beguile,
Sweet Harp of Love !

• Unless a maid like Leila fair
Should prove to fond affection true ;—
But soft ! the dream is light as air,
Till then, perhaps a last, adieu,
Sweet Harp of Love !

Had not the Ode to the Memory of Collins been too long for insertion, we should have extracted it : but we must take our leave of these three friends, wishing them success in their respective professional exertions, and assuring them that, whatever defects may appear in this poetical wreath, we regard it as containing sprigs of considerable promise.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 21. *Directions for Engravers, or Holiness to the Lord.* By the Rev. James Harriman Hutton. 12mo. Pamphlet. Printed at Exeter.

This queer-looking title gave us warning, and prepared us to expect something in the *oddity-line*, as tradesmen would express themselves. We were not mistaken. Mr. H.'s hints as much respect inkle-weavers as they do engravers : his sole object being to assist sinful mortals in the practice of engraving holiness on the heart. 'The engraver,' he says, 'touches and retouches to make his gem or plate fit for the inspection of the curious ; and shall we be less diligent in that precious engraving of holiness to the Lord ?'

Here is all that this good man advances about engraving. Had he no grave friend gravely to tell him that such advice could not be called *Directions for Engravers* ?

Art. 22. *Pious Selections from the Works of Thomas-a-Kempis, Dr. Doddridge, Miss Bowdler, Sir J. Stonehouse, Bishop Sherlock, Mrs. Burnett, &c. &c.* By Miss Marshall, Translator of Extracts from Fenelon into English. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1812.

Books formed by the aid of a pair of scissors are often useful publications. When good judgment guides those little instruments, the reader is grateful for the valuable matter which they select for him, and thinks not of the facility of the operation. Such is the multitude of excellent religious books in our language, that nothing is easier than to make pious selections for the use of serious Christians : but, from such a writer as Thomas-a-Kempis, it is not advisable to extract by

by wholesale. On the Necessity and Reasonableness of Patience, Thomas has offered some good remarks : but, when he tells us that it is better to suffer afflictions here than ' to endure the torments of hell, and the everlasting vengeance of an angry God,' he contradicts the doctrine of Scripture, which represents afflictions as proceeding from the *mercy* not from the *vengeance* of God ; and he tries rather to terrify than to reason us into the exercise of patience. This sentence, moreover, does not accord with an assertion in the following section, that ' we ought to be thankful *on account* of our afflictions.' We could wish to expunge other passages which this lady has admitted from her old favourite. Did it never occur to her that the words at p. 81., ' Look down, almighty Rock,' included an incongruous metaphor ? The passages from Blair are more adapted to the present taste of Christians than the selections here profusely made from Kempis. — If we may judge from these extracts, Miss M.'s mind is rather of a sombre complexion ; and her compilation is particularly calculated for the use of persons in affliction.

Art. 23. *Sermons on various Subjects.* By John Styles. 8vo. pp. 401. Williams and Son. 1813.

Some of the discourses in this volume have already fallen under our notice, and afforded us an opportunity of glancing at the merit of Mr. Styles as a writer. He appears now before us at full length ; and, from the sermons with which we are here presented, a tolerably correct idea may be formed of him. He is certainly a man of genius, possessing a vigorous mind and great power of expression : but as a preacher he seems to us to afford too much play to his imagination, and to be more poetical than convincing. Imitating Dr. Young in his *Night Thoughts*, he is incessantly in search of fine and striking passages ; of thoughts which are more brilliant and imposing than correct. In amplification and declamation he is an orator of the first class : but, when his judgment is more matured, he will probably lop off the luxuriant and flowery branches of a factitious eloquence, and adopt a style less *dashing* but more manly, less sublime but more solid, less captivating to the lovers of sound but more gratifying to men of sense. Young preachers climb with St. Paul into the third heaven : but, unlike St. Paul, they will also venture on a description of it. Mr. Styles seems to be quite familiar with affairs in the world to come ; for he tells us (p. 146.) that ' the songs of angels are but the music of God's imperial decrees, which he has written through the high provinces of heaven ;' — that (p. 148.) ' the all-piercing eye of the Divinity saw nothing in Lucifer, before his apostacy, but perfection and glory ;' — and that (p. 159.) ' God has set his mark of vengeance upon apostate spirits, who are bound in imperishable chains, to rise no more for ever.' On the punishment of the wicked, Mr. S. bursts into terrific and overawing sublimity :

' It is not enough (he says) to condemn to eternal flames, and to confine in chains of darkness those who have fled from his justice. It is not enough to pour out his wrath upon those who have committed the crime, he detests even the instruments of the crime ; he designs that all things that have served sin shall bear the marks of his

his anger. Thou sun, and ye heavens, ye have ministered to the heirs of hell, and ye shall perish. Thou solid earth, for ages and generations thou hast borne the criminals, while they have hurled defiance at the laws of their Creator, and the elements that surround thee, and of which thou art composed, shall melt with fervent heat; turned into liquid flame, thou shalt descend in torrents into the bottomless pit, and with overwhelming fury alarm and confound the victims of infinite wrath.'

In another place, he thus exhorts his audience:

'Ascend into the visions of eternity; take your stations beside the angels of punishment, you will then confess that the half has not been told.'

This is certainly *commanding* eloquence: but unfortunately the preacher's audience cannot do as they are directed, and must therefore take his word that they are let into only the half of "the secrets of the prison-house." — Studying similar *effect*, he opens a discourse on the joy of angels over the repentance of a sinner with this poetic address to his hearers:

'Imagine that you see me surrounded with thousands of these glorious beings, who are waiting with anxious suspense to know the result of my endeavours.'

Sin is denounced as an evil which demands the eternal vengeance of God, and which the Deity is bound in justice to punish with never-ending severity; unless 'a *substitution* of Christ in the place of sinners' be effected. Such a substitution, however, is no where mentioned in Scripture, and it appears to us so utterly impossible that it is beyond the reach of Omnipotence itself. Perfect innocence cannot assume the character of vice, nor be open to the punishment due to vice; nor can vice be susceptible of the qualities and praise of virtue. An innocent person may generously offer to suffer in the place of a condemned criminal: but no sovereign who respected the principles of justice could permit the substitution. If our blessed Saviour suffered death in advocating the cause of sinners, and in his endeavours to restore them to the favour of God, we are not justified in representing him as substituted 'in the place of sinners,' and in describing him as having, in consequence of this substitution, the vials of divine wrath poured forth on his head. Such a representation is a libel both on the justice and on the mercy of God: — on his justice, as it describes him accumulating on the most perfect virtue the punishment due only to atrocious crime; — on his mercy, because the satisfaction of vengeance destroys every idea of grace. How badly, moreover, do the two parts of this preacher's system hang together! Vice merits everlasting punishment; but Virtue, its opposite, deserves no reward! He contends (p. 271.) 'that there is no necessary connection between religious duties and the divine favour.' Does the love of a righteous God towards his righteous creatures result from no fitness or necessary connection? Is the divine preference of virtue a mere arbitrary impulse? Surely Mr. Styles will not say that it is. — At p. 364. he speaks of 'moral beauty, which is a resemblance of God's moral attributes.' Now if we admit the existence of moral beauty, and define it to consist in a resemblance to the moral attributes of the Divine Essence, can it be maintained that

that no necessary connection subsists between obedience to the divine will (that is, moral and religious obedience,) and the divine favour! What renders acceptable the obedience or righteousness of Christ?

We submit these plain strictures to Mr. Styles with little hopes of success, because he seems, in his zeal for orthodoxy, to outrage the dictates of the plainest common sense: yet, "when graver years come sailing by," and he looks back on some bold assertions contained in this volume, he will perhaps give them as little quarter as we have done, and adopt a theology which may be less popular but more defensible.

Among these twelve sermons, is one against cruelty to animals, which is an excellent composition. Mr. Styles has treated that subject with much ability, and all persons of discernment and humanity will peruse his discourse with pleasure.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 24. *A View of the French Campaign in Russia, in the Year 1812*, collected from the Official and other Documents of both Nations. Containing the Movements of both Armies, and all the Battles fought, from the Time of the Entrance of the French into the Russian Territories at Kowno, on the 24th of June, to their Retreat from Moscow, and the subsequent Disasters attending their March, from the Time Buonaparte fled from his Army at Smorgonie. With the killed, wounded, and Prisoners, on both Sides, and some Observations on their Situation and Difficulties, both for want of Provisions and the Inclemency of the Season. To which is added, a Calculation of Provisions and Forage necessary for the Support of a large Army One Week. By an Officer. 8vo. pp. 226. 7s. Boards. Egerton. 1813.

The work announced by this long and ill-written title may be placed on the same shelf with some of its predecessors, being a compilation ~~got up~~ for the purpose of levying a contribution on public feeling. It consists of little more than a reprint of the Bulletins on both sides, with a wretched map of the seat of war.

Art. 25. *A Treatise on Diamonds and Precious Stones*, including their History, Natural and Commercial. To which is added, some Account of the best Methods of cutting and polishing them. By John Mawe, Author of Travels through the Diamond District of Brazil. 8vo. pp. 168. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Mr. Mawe has been introduced to our readers by an account of his travels in Brazil, in the first article of the present number. In testimony of the kindness and confidence shewn to him by the Prince Regent of Portugal, when he visited the Trans-atlantic mines, the present little work has been inscribed to his Royal Highness. Its object is to present to the *amateur* of gems, and of other precious stones, 'a popular and useful history of those beautiful substances;' and, in consequence of the great stress laid on the colour of gems, both by venders and purchasers, the author has introduced a few coloured plates, which shew that, though different sets of colours belong to particular species, yet each species admits only certain varieties of tinge. Hence the necessity of a careful comparative examination of gems, before any judgment is given respecting their genuineness.

ness. It is really surprising, says Mr. M., to observe the gross mistakes committed by those, who, from interest and from a familiar acquaintance with precious stones, ought to be the least likely to fall into error. One species, it seems, is often sold for another, and the fraudulent compositions of itinerant dealers frequently pass current for the genuine produce of the mine. Mr. M. hopes that the publication of this tract, short as it is, may have some effect in securing the liberal purchaser and the fair dealer in gems from the arts of the unprincipled.

Art. 26. *Account of the Island of Madeira.* By N. C. Pitta, M.D. Physician at Madeira. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

Dr. Pitta appears to be a native of the island of Madeira, but to have received his medical education in this country. We may therefore conclude that he is sufficiently qualified to supply adequate information on the subject of his work, and that we ought to receive his statements with confidence. He treats on every topic, civil, military, political, geographical, philosophical, and moral; and he probably has given us all the particulars that could be obtained, consistently with the nature of the publication, which is to convey not a scientific but a popular account of Madeira. One of the points most interesting to an English reader is the climate, which has often been celebrated as among the finest on the earth, and is therefore much recommended to consumptive patients. Although we find that the natives themselves are not exempt from pulmonic diseases, yet Dr. Pitta's statements are, on the whole, very favourable. The equability of the temperature and the purity of the air are the island's two most striking characteristics; and, if falls of snow occasionally take place among the mountains, and a hot easterly wind blows for a few days in the year, yet, the author observes,

‘ The winter of Madeira may be said to be known only perhaps by a gale of wind, which may drive the vessels in the roads from their anchorage; or by a torrent of rain, which produces a rapid flow of the rivers down the ravines. But, even during such periods, snow is never known to continue above a day in the lower parts. At Funchal, when the tops of the hills are covered with snow, the temperature is about 64.

‘ The other months of the year are always attended by refreshing land and sea-breezes, which, at stated periods, set in regularly, unless during the prevalence of the hot and suffocating easterly wind, already mentioned.

‘ In the town of Funchal, as in all other low situations, at all seasons of the year, the temperature is, except during the Sirocco, 10 or 12 degrees greater than it is found to be in the higher parts of the island.

‘ During the summer-months, the thermometer in the course of the day, ranges from 68 to 76; its medium heat in the shade being from 72 to 74. — In the course of the summer, it sometimes rises to 80 and upwards, and during the prevalence of hot winds, it stands even so high as 84. Indeed, during the Sirocco wind, it has at times risen much higher.

‘ In winter, it ranges from 57 to 65; its medium in the shade being from 60 to 64. — In the course of this season, it falls below 57 only when

when the northerly winds, with falls of snow, prevail on the heights. It seldom rises above 65, except when there are easterly winds.

'The winters of Madeira may be compared to the summer of England in every thing but the length of days, and those sudden changes from heat to cold to which England is subject.'

On the whole, this work, although it cannot rank highly as a literary performance, may be perused with advantage by those who are in any way interested in the subject.

Another publication by Dr. Pitta was mentioned in our Number for September, p. 89.

Art. 27. *Sketch of a proposed Speech on the Subject of Legislative Interference in the Conversion of the Indian Population to Christianity.* In reference to the Twelfth and Thirteenth Resolutions on East-India Affairs. 8vo. pp. 61. Longman and Co. 1813.

In legislating for nations, especially in matters of religion, the greatest caution and forbearance are necessary; and it may be laid down as a general rule that the less a government interferes in this province, the better. If this remark be just with respect to the people of Europe, it applies with accumulated force to the subjects of our eastern empire; whose attachment to their faith and ceremonies is so firmly rooted, that the very attempt to shake it may be fatal to our Indian way. Setting political considerations out of the question, we have every reason to believe that by pressing the conversion of the Hindoos we shall in fact retard it; and it is better to follow, than rashly to attempt to guide, the hand of Providence. According to the best accounts, our Indian population is not at present ripe for conversion; and we should not aim at sowing the seed of Christianity, till the ground is brought into proper order for its reception. — Mr. Cockburn, the sensible author of this proposed speech, who was personally examined by the Parliamentary committees on India affairs, is entirely of this opinion. He disclaims every idea of imputing any but the purest motives and intentions to those who press the measure of attempting to convert India by inundating her with missionaries: but the measure itself meets with his unqualified disapprobation. He reminds us of the tragedy at Vellore, and of the cause of the expulsion of the Christian missionaries from China and Japan. 'In India,' we are told, 'there is the most entire and perfect toleration. The Hindoos, who respect all other religions, who will not suffer a convert to enter the pale of their church, seek not to disturb the doctrines of others.' Mr. C. contends that, though 'coercion' may be disclaimed, 'the facilities' which are to be afforded to missionaries by the British government in India will be construed by the Bramins into a settled plan for their conversion, and be deemed a preparatory step, as was the case with the Portuguese and Mohammedans, to the actual use of persecution: he therefore raises his voice against *the very attempt*. Instead of broadly avowing the scheme of conversion to the religion of their European rulers, Mr. C. advises that pains may be taken to encourage schools in the villages throughout the East, and to promote the circulation and use of those excellent moral lessons which may be extracted from the works of the Bramins. This measure, he says, would create neither
suspicion

suspicion nor alarm; and no doubt can be entertained that a progressive improvement of the people would follow, especially among the rising generation, whose minds would be thus prepared for more extensive instruction. We are happy to find that, though the Hindoos are represented as obstinate in their prejudices, our better ideas of morality seem to be gaining ground. 'The custom of widows burning themselves on the funeral pile of their husbands has very much diminished in practice, and will no doubt in time be abolished.' By degrees, the Hindoos will learn from us, and eventually we may be the instruments of converting them: but the hand of power must not appear.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 28. *The Principles of Protestant Dissenters stated and vindicated.* Preached at the Old Jewry Chapel, March 10. 1813, being the Fast-Day, and published at the Request of many who heard it. By Abraham Rees, D.D., F.R.S., F.L.S., Editor of the New Cyclopædia. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

A text (Mark, ix. 33.) admirably adapted to the occasion is chosen by this learned preacher. Religionists in all ages are disposed to *forbid* those who do not *follow* them; and, if the state will lend them power, they will *do more than forbid* them. In the present age, however, all men of education are awake to the folly of supporting a lame theological argument by the terrors of gibbets, racks, fiery faggots, and other similar syllogisms in the logic of persecution; and it is now very generally agreed that even the milder features of persecution, as existing in the shape of civil penalties and disabilities, cannot be allowed to appear in a country that enjoys religious liberty. We say it is *generally* agreed, because this principle is not yet *universally* admitted: but it is daily gaining ground, and will probably ere long be an established maxim of government. Doubtful, however, as some persons may be, of the possibility of perfectly amalgamating Catholicism with the British Constitution, it must, without hesitation, be allowed that the principles of Protestant Dissenters are in perfect harmony with it; and that even our reformed church, which is an adopted child of the state, cannot defend her separation from the church of Rome without availing herself of the arguments of Protestant Dissenters. Dr. Rees pleads the cause of himself and his brethren with forcible eloquence. He asserts, and who will dare to contradict him? that 'none have a right to impose their own religious opinions and practice on others; to establish any common standard of faith and worship; and to enforce by threats and penalties uniformity of religious principles, profession, and conduct.' A reference is made to the writings of the most intelligent clergy, to shew that every attempt to produce uniformity of opinion is useless; and, in order to reconcile us to the necessary result of free inquiry, he justly observes that 'difference of sentiment furnishes occasion for the culture and exercise of some of the most important and amiable graces of the Christian temper and character.'

Art. 29. *The Titles and Attributes of God no Proof of the Divinity of him to whom they are ascribed.* Preached at Chichester, July 1.

†1

1812.

1812, before the Southern Unitarian Society, by William Hughes, 18mo. 1s. Eaton.

If we except the sacred tetragrammaton of the Jews, it may be boldly affirmed that no name employed to designate Deity, whether in antient or modern languages, is uniformly used to express the supreme and self-existent God. Though we affix to this word ideas of infinity and eternity which can belong to no creature, the term itself denotes only one attribute of divinity, viz. goodness; and on the Latin word it will be sufficient to quote Sir Isaac Newton's remark, in the *Scholium generale*, viz. "*Vox Deus passim significat dominium; sed omnis dominus non est Deus.*" The moderns, however, do not confound the appellatives *Deus* and *Dominus*: but the antients were less correct. Among the Gentiles, men were often deified, and ranked among the gods. Even in the Old Testament, the word *Elohim*, which is translated by the corresponding terms *Θεός*, *Deus*, *God*, is applied to dignified men: particularly to Moses in Exod. vi. 29. The truth of this observation is established by our Saviour in the New Testament, who tells us (John, x. 35.) that "those were called gods to whom the word of God came." So far, then, Mr. Hughes proceeds without the chance of contradiction, when he asserts that the title of God constitutes no proof of the absolute divinity of him to whom it is ascribed: but we must demur to his including the words '*and attributes*,' if he means all the divine attributes, in his proposition. When, moreover, he proceeds to state that *The titles THE LORD (Jehovah) — THE LORD GOD (Jehovah Elohim) — THE LORD GOD ALMIGHTY — THE GOD OF GLORY — THE GOD OF ABRAHAM — THE FIRST AND THE LAST — JEHOVAH (Essentiator, as Bythner translates this term,) I AM — CREATOR,* — are all applied to AN ANGELIC MINISTER, we are induced to believe that he was not aware of the consequences of such a position. If this be granted, will not the doctrine ascribed to Marcion and other antient heretics necessarily follow, that "the God of the Jews and the Creator of the mundane system is not the Supreme Deity;" will it not also follow that Divine worship is directed in the Scriptures to be offered to a subordinate God; and, if this be admitted, what becomes of the Unitarian scheme?

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have mislaid the letter relative to a part of our account of Dr. Cogan's works, in our last Review, and are therefore at present totally unable to make any reply to it.

In our next Number, we hope to compensate *Pegasus* for the disappointment which he has experienced.

Goody Two-shoes, *Tom Thumb*, and *Jack the Giant-killer*, renowned and beloved acquaintances of our early years, seem to be objects of appropriate recommendation to *Master 'Inquisitive.'*

* * The APPENDIX to this Volume will be published with the Review for January on the 1st of February.



THE
A P P E N D I X
TO THE
SEVENTY-SECOND VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
E N L A R G E D.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Contes de Wieland*, &c.; i. e. Tales of WIELAND and of the Baron DE RAMDOHR, translated from the German by M***, and followed by two Russian Tales and one Historical Anecdote. 12mo: 2 Vols. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s.

THE Tale is among those forms of composition of which the antients have not left us any models. Epopeas are numerous among the classic writers; and some works, like the *Metamorphoses* of Ovid, include agreeable Tales: but none of their poets have separated, into distinct short narrations, such incidents or single adventures as form the substance of a modern Tale.

Marmontel says that the Tale is to comedy what the epopea is to tragedy: but that, a comic action not having the importance or warmth of interest which a tragic action possesses, the Tale will not bear to be long. Great things appear worthy to be pointed out at a distance, and harbingered from afar: but familiar things would soon tire the attention of a reader, if they were incumbered with a bustle of preparation, and loaded with episodical circumstance. A smile is more transient than a tear.

Experience, however, has not confirmed the theory of *Marmontel*. Comic epopeas have appeared, which support for twenty-one books a lively interest; and tragic tales have rivalled in pathos the scenes of *Schiller* and *Kotzebue*.—

Why should they not? Human attention endures but for a sitting. An hour's audience is willingly given to religious service : an hour and half to a lecture on criticism, or science : but, without the music, or the scenery, or the pageantry, of the drama, imaginary interests will not detain the contemplation for two hours together. An epopea, therefore, can be but a series of tales : each book, or canto, must be read, or heard, at a separate fit of application : the feelings have but their single hour of tide, in which to swell and to ebb ; and the next exertion of study may as well respect fresh persons.

Among all the tale-writers of the modern world, WIELAND, though too diffuse, is the best. In our *xxii* Volume, p. 508., we have already given a sufficiently ample account of his *Fabliaux*, out of which the two volumes now before us are chiefly translated. The Baron de RAMDOHR is probably the translator, because he freely intersperses tales of his own, which to an impartial compiler would not have appeared worthy of their company. We shall enumerate the distinct contents of the work.

A biographical incident, of which the scene is laid at Pyrmont, and of which the author professes to have been the hero, serves as a preface. The second Tale is WIELAND's *Mule without a Bridle*. 3. *La Signora Avveduta*. This anecdote is but an improbable and insipid narrative by Baron RAMDOHR. 4. *Hann and Gulpenhch*, again from WIELAND. 5. *Usbeck*, a dull allegory by the Baron. These five stories complete the first volume.

In the second, we have, 1. *Pervonte* ; which tale was originally written by *Giam-battista Basili*, and printed at Naples in 1674, under the feigned name of *Abbatuttis*, in a collection intitled *Il Pentamerone*. The original, which satirizes a Neapolitan princess, who had been obliged by her own imprudence to contract a somewhat derogatory marriage, has been greatly varied by WIELAND, and provided with a new catastrophe : but the translator has rejected these additions and digressions, and has restored *Pervonte* to its native simplicity of form. 2. *Le mari Sigisb *. The cicisb o of his own wife is an original story of Baron RAMDOHR, the hint of which seems to be derived from certain conventions which *Rousseau* attributes to his *Emilius* and *Sophia* : it is not more fortunate than the preceding specimens.

The third story, intitled *Basil, the Son of Boguslas*, is translated from a collection printed at Moscow in 1783. *Richter* put it into German, and the present author thence into French. We will translate it for the third time. It has a native character, and is unlike those European stories which have been tolled,
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like church-bells, in the ears of grandsire and grandson, and which we should discover to be heavy-toned if they did not belong to the parish.

‘Boguslas, Prince of Novogorod, was eighty years old when he died; having reigned sixty years, and latterly in great tranquillity. Basil, his only son, was about twenty. Freed on a sudden from the yoke of paternal authority, and subjected only to the guardianship of a mother who worshipped him, he soon gave a loose rein to dispositions which were naturally boisterous. He spent whole days in the street, entering into the games and sports of the men and grown boys: but woe to the one with whom he grappled in earnest: the hand which he squeezed was crushed for ever, and the head which he struck could think no more.

‘The inhabitants of Novogorod did not like these sports of their young prince; and the older *posadniks* (municipal officers) assembled in the town-hall to deliberate. After the session, they went to the mother of Basil, and said to her: “Thou art a worthy woman, Amelfa Timofeiewna: watch better over the conduct of thy dear boy, Basil, son of Boguslas, that he may not pass his days in mischievous strife; already his sports have cost lives to our city.” This harangue vexed the good lady Amelfa: but she promised the *posadniks* that she would take better care of young Basil, made them a low courtesy, and saw them to the door. She next sent for her son, and spoke to him thus: “In the name of God, my dear boy, do not run about, and enter into the sports of the men and the youths. You have the strength of a knight: but you do not know the use of it. The hand which you squeeze is crushed for ever, and the head which you strike can think no more. The people are displeased, and the *posadniks* have come to me with complaints. If a revolt should happen, what could we do? You have no father to protect you; I am but a widow; the inhabitants of Novogorod are very numerous; my dear son, take your mother’s advice, and, as you are strong, be merciful.”

‘Basil, the son of Boguslas, listened quietly to the remonstrance of his mother; and when she had finished, he bowed and said: “My good mother, I care neither for the *posadniks* nor for the people of Novogorod: but I care much for your good advice; and I promise you not to go into the streets, and play with the men and the boys. But how shall I amuse myself, and try the strength of my arm? I was not born to sit behind the stove; nor was the strength of a nobleman given to me for nothing. When my time comes, I will humble the *posadniks*, and all the Russias shall bow before me. But as yet I am your ward. Let me then choose myself companions, among whom I may try the strength of my arm. Give me some mead, and strong beer, that I may invite the strong and the bold, and find friends worthy of me.”

‘The lady Amelfa Timofeiewna granted his request. On each side of the castle-gate was placed a huge barrel, one of mead, and one of strong beer, and to each was chained a golden cup; and a herald stood by with a trumpet, crying: “He that would eat and drink his fill, he that would wear a pellisse-cloak, he that would get

money to spend, let him enter the castle of Basil, son of Boguslas : but first let him weigh his strength ; Basil will put it to the proof, and receive only the strong and the bold." Thus cried the heralds from morn to eve : but nobody gave heed.

Meanwhile, Basil sat looking through the grate of his chamber, to see whether any comrades came to him. Still nobody asked for a draught out of the golden cups. At length, towards night, Fomushka, the tall, walked up to the gate. He struck with his knuckle the barrel of oak, and filled the golden cup with a gush of mead, which he emptied at a draught. When Basil saw this, he descended from his apartment into the court where Fomushka stood, went up to him, and gave him with his fist a sounding blow behind the right ear. Fomushka did not stir, and his stiff black curls seemed not to have yielded to the stroke. At this the heart of the Prince leaped for joy. He took Fomushka by the hand, and led him up stairs into the gilded chamber. Then he embraced him, and they both swore, on the honour of knights, to be for ever comrades and brothers in arms, to live and die for one another, to eat of the same dish, and drink out of the same cup. Then Basil made him sit down at the oaken table, and gave him, after meat, sugared fruits from the south.

The next morning, as Basil was looking out of his grated window to see whether any one came to drink out of his tun, he beheld Bogdanushka, the little, who went up to the but of beer, kicked off the golden cup, and, lifting the tub with both hands to his mouth, emptied it. Then the young prince called Fomushka. They went down together into the court as far as the gate, and both ran their spears against the head of Bogdanushka : but their lances shivered to splinters against his skull, and Bogdanushka never flinched. Then they took him by the hand, and led him through the wide court, up the grand stair-case, into the gilded chamber, where all three embraced, and swore to each other fidelity and fraternity unto death.

Presently, the news spread that Basil, son of Boguslas, had chosen for his companions the bravest of the young men, and lived fraternally with them. The posadniks were troubled at this, and assembled at the town-hall to deliberate. After they had taken their places, the sage Tshoudin advanced into the middle of the hall, bowed to the four sides, and, stroking his long beard, thus began : " Hear, posadniks of Novogorod, and all you of the Slavonian people who are here together. You know that our country is without a head, while our prince is a minor ; and that, until he is ripe of years and reason, we are masters of Novogorod and its territory. This young man, who is destined one day to reign over us, promises nothing good. Scarcely has he passed his childhood, when he displays an impetuous character. His very sports are cruel. Already he has made widows and orphans. Now he is collecting about him the boldest of the young, and living fraternally with them. Can this be with good intentions ? This it behoves us to learn. Let us then order a feast, and invite the young prince, so we shall see his temper, and that of the country. We will offer him wine. If he drinks not he is to be suspected, he has projects to conceal ; if he drinks,

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we shall know his mind; in wine there is truth. Should we perceive that his intentions are not good, we must strike off his head. Other princes are to be found in Russia, from among whom we may chuse; and were there none, we could do without them."

"Then all the *posadniki* arose; and bowed before the sage Tshoudin, and cried with one voice: "Thy speech is wise, be it done as thou hast said."

"The next day, at break of dawn, were begun the preparations for the feast. Tables of oak were arrayed in the town-hall, and white cloths were spread over them. Meat was roasted in the oven, and sugared wares were bought of the merchant. Along the walls, and round about the room, were barrels of mead, and beer, and wine; and, by each, a cup of gold, or of silver, or of polished wood. When all was ready, the *posadniki* were deputed to the castle to invite the Princess and her son.

"When the good lady Amelfa Timofeiewna had heard their message, she answered in the following manner: "Sports and dances become me no longer. When I was the bride of Boguslas I came to your feast: but, now that my life is closing, a lonely room suits me best, where I can offer my nightly prayer. My son is young; be contented if he adorns your feast."

"Then the *posadniki* went to the young prince, and begged him to come. He answered: "I should like to come, if my mother deems it right;" and, having asked her leave, she granted it. But she gave her son good advice how to behave amid the treacherous *posadniki*, whom she knew but too well. "Drink, my son," said she, "but do not drink too much. The *posadniki* are cunning, and want to put you to the proof. Be on your guard; and if they begin to vaunt their riches and their shrewdness, let them boast on, and do you boast of nothing. Above all, be affable, and hurt no one by neglect or scorn." After these words she embraced Basil, who went to the feast.

"The *posadniki* received him at the bottom of the stair-case of the town-hall, and accompanied him into the hall, and offered him the place of honour. Basil said No, and seated himself at the bottom of the table, "as young men should do," he observed. Then the *posadniki* took him under the arms, and dragged him to the upper end of the table. "Here," they said, "your father was wont to sit, learn to sit here likewise." Then they offered him a cup of sweet wine. Basil drank, and ate of their meats and comfits, but sat still and silent as a young girl.

"By degrees the *posadniki* began to grow merry, and to talk, and to glorify themselves. One boasted of his horse, another of his wife, another of his money, another of his strength, another of his shrewdness; and at last all began to talk at once, and each heard only his own voice of praise. But Basil, son of Boguslas, did not follow the example; he let them boast on, and sat still. Then the wise Tshoudin, and the rich Satka, addressed him in these words: "Why do you sit silent, Prince, you have much cause to boast, and yet say nothing?" The Prince answered modestly: "Posadniki, you are considerable and respectable men, to you it belongs to speak boldly

and freely. How can I, young and an orphan, have any thing from which I can claim merit before you? The gold I possess is not of my acquiring. My turn will come some day, and then I may talk like others."

"The posadniks were surprized at an answer so modest and discreet, and began to talk one with another in half whispers. When their sentiments were ascertained, Tshoudin filled a great cup of strong wine, and offered it to the young prince, saying: "Let him empty this cup, who loves the great Novogorod, and the Slavonian nation."

"This time Basil could not avoid to drink; he therefore took the cup, and drained it to the bottom. But now, when the posadniks recommenced their boasting, the wine operated on the young prince, and he said: "Hearken, you conceited fellows, know who Basil is, the son of Boguslas, and hold your tongues. Basil is the lord of Russia, and the whole Slavonian nation owes him allegiance; and Novogorod owes him tribute; and the posadniks are to bend before him."

"At these words the posadniks became angry: they sprang from their seats, and called out at once: "No, thou shalt not reign over Russia, nor will we bend before thee. Thou art impetuous and cruel. We want no such ruler; therefore go out of our town at break of day, and out of our shire by set of sun, or we will compel thee to it."

"I fear neither you nor any one," replied Basil; "Collect the forces of Novogorod. I defy them; we will see whether you can compel me to quit my country. Mine it is by birthright, and mine it shall remain until death. Novogorod and the Slavonian nation belong to me, and you are all my subjects." At these words he arose, crossed the croud of affrighted posadniks, which opened to give him passage, and thus he left the banquet at the town-hall.

"After his departure, the posadniks began to recover from their astonishment. They made merry with the threatenings of the angry boy, as they affected to call him, and resolved to collect the troops of the city, and to expel him on the next day. "His young bones," said Satka, "shall bleach on the heath. How should a child be a match for us?"

"The alarm-bell rang in all the city, and the men who were of age to bear arms were mustered in the market-place. When the good lady Amelfa Timofeiewna heard this, she inquired the motive; and when she learnt that Basil son of Boguslas had angered the posadniks by his bold words, she went to his room, and blamed him for his rashness: but perceiving that he was still drunk, she led him into a cool cellar, and bad him sleep there until he was sober. Amelfa Timofeiewna then went to her treasures, and took out a golden cup, and placed in it rings, bracelets, and gorgets set with jewels. Accompanied by women, she then proceeded to the town-hall, where the posadniks were collected. She entered the hall, bowed low, placed her cup on the table, and with soothing words endeavoured to engage the posadniks to pardon in her son the ebullitions of youth and drunkenness. "If you make no allowance for his

his years, surely some is due to the memory of his father's virtues, who was so long and justly dear to the great Novogorod." These humble words served only to increase the pride of the posadniki, and they answered insolently: "Hence, old lady, with your jewels and your gold, we want them not; what have you to do with the quarrels of men; we will have the head of your turbulent boy."

The good lady then returned to the castle, shedding bitter tears, and ordered the gates to be shut to guard against events. On the next day, the posadniki marched with the city-troops towards the castle, and summoned it to surrender. At length they broke down the gates, and the troops rushed into the court, like waves of a swollen river which had burst the bank that should confine its course. At the noise of weapons, and the cry of soldiers, Basil, son of Boguslas, awoke in his cellar. He sprang on his alert feet, and, finding the door fastened, broke it with a blow of his fist. In two leaps, he was in the court. Being without arms, he seized on a balk that stood at hand, and began to strike with it the inhabitants of Novogorod. His terrible weapon deals fatal blows, aright and aleft; the citizen-soldiers fly before their sovereign. Fomushka and Bogdanushka collect his comrades, and drive before them the Novogorodians. The young blood of Basil boils; and he does not hear the cry for quarter, until the fugitives are stopped by the impetuous stream of the Wolchowa.

The posadniki now abandon the field of battle, and assemble in the town-hall. They take a golden cup, filled with rings and jewels, and walk to the castle to solicit an audience of the good lady Amelfa Timofeiewna: but they stop in the street opposite to her windows, not presuming now to enter the court. They bend to the ground their proud heads, and cry in a plaintive tone: "O our queen and our mother, take pity on us: we have angered thy son, our sovereign, do not forsake us: Basil, in his wrath, is making a desert of Novogorod; intercede for us, that we may be spared." The Princess heard, but turned not on them her lively eyes: she sent word: "You have begun; you must finish. What has an old lady to do with the quarrels of men?"

The posadniki returned to the town-hall, and drew up a writing, submitting themselves and their posterity, and their city and country, to the son of Boguslas, and declaring Basil to be sovereign of Novogorod and of all Russia. They gave him full power and authority to levy taxes; and with this act they returned to Fomushka, and Bogdanushka, who now undertook to intercede for them. These knights were affected by the prayers of their countrymen, and cast away the clubs which they had employed in hostility. They took the writing of the posadniki, and holding it in the air they said: "Hail, Basil, son of Boguslas, hurt not thy subjects: the posadniki lay at thy feet their city and its domain; thou art absolute sovereign of Novogorod and its dependencies; here is the deed of cession." When they approached, they kneeled down, and the posadniki kneeled down, before Basil; and the people followed their example, and all exclaimed: "God save our King Basil, son of Boguslas!"

'Then the young prince curbed his anger, and suffered his strong arm to repose. He took the writing, and promised amnesty. They returned comforted from the river-side; and Basil reigned over Novogorod. His government was firm and fortunate; commerce spread, and industry thrived: neither civil dissension nor foreign war troubled any more his way, for all people abroad and at home feared Basil, son of Boguslaa.'

The fourth story is again a translation from the Russian, entitled *Ishourila*. It is not narrated with so much simplicity of style, nor does it abound so much with traits of national manners, as the preceding anecdote: yet still it has the merit of novel or original incident. The fifth and concluding tale, the *Predictions*, is a gipsy-story, by an anonymous writer.

These volumes afford so few excellent tales, that they cannot merit entire translation: but perhaps they may supply some welcome materials to those Magazines which consider a romantic narrative as a part of the expected monthly entertainment. Disrobed of the charms of an easy and flowing versification, the Tales of WIELAND do not here retain all their original power to delight. Like Alcina, it is to the arts of the toilette and to the felicities of diction that his personages owe half their beauties and their power to charm; and these must suffer in the change from a native to a foreign idiom, from a rhimed to a prosaic diction, from a diffuse to a compressed style.

ART. II. *Voyage aux Isles de Trinidad, &c ; i. e. A Voyage to the Islands of Trinidad, Tobago, and Margarita, and to different Parts of Venezuela in South America.* By J. J. DAUXION LAVAYSSE, Corresponding Member of the Society of Sciences, Belles Lettres, and Arts, of Bourdeaux. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 897. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 8s.

IT appears that M. DAUXION LAVAYSSE is one of the few inhabitants of the West Indies, who has endeavoured to survey that quarter of the world with the eye of a philosopher. A Frenchman by birth, he proceeded in 1791, at the early age of seventeen, to a relation at St. Lucie, who was in affluent circumstances, but who died soon afterward without a will, and left him to make his way in the midst of strangers. The political disorders of the time, while they ruined St. Domingo, were productive of considerable agitation in the French colonies to leeward, and had the effect of inducing him to settle in Trinidad; which at that time was in the possession of the Spaniards. Here he became a planter, and a married man: but he found it necessary, in consequence of a liver-complaint, to repair,

repair, in 1807, to Cumana on the Spanish Main. Hence arose his acquaintance with the state of society, and the productions of the soil, in the province of Venezuela. Having recovered his health, he returned by the way of Guadaloupe and North America to France, where he has published the present volumes as the precursor of a larger work, which he intends to intitle, "*Tableau physique, historique, et statistique des Colonies Françaises en Amérique.*"

Vol. I. is appropriated to the island of Trinidad, and comprises its history, its present condition in point of cultivation, and an account of its climate and geology. The second takes a wider range, comprehending the island of Tobago and the Spanish provinces of Cumana and Guiana, with the island of Margarita. To the account of this extensive region, are added occasional observations on the Dutch colonies of Demarara and Surinam; and, at the end of the volume, we have a short historical notice of the celebrated *Las Casas*. The author pleads guilty (pref. p. 14.) to the influence of prejudices, to a certain extent, but assures his readers that they may place implicit confidence in his representation of facts. In the course of his various peregrinations, he visited England and Scotland; without, however, acquiring any predilection for our countrymen, particularly for the portion of them who dwell on the other side of the Tweed. The truth is that, though evidently a man of information and respectability, he has been exposed to personal sufferings, partly in consequence of political circumstances, and partly, we apprehend, from an uncomplying turn of mind. Living in Trinidad at the time of the unfortunate collisions between Colonels Fullarton and Picton, he appears to have sided with the former in a way which had the effect of rendering his subsequent residence in the island uncomfortable. These circumstances it is fit to premise, that we may receive with certain grains of allowance the observations of a writer, who, in other respects, is decidedly above the generality of travellers. — We now proceed to extract detached passages from the most instructive portions of his work.

Trinidad. — On disembarking at the town of Port of Spain, I went to bathe in the beautiful river Maraval. Next day, I walked along the banks of the rivers St. Anne, Aricagua, and St. Joseph; where I remarked that the stones and rocks bore a different appearance from those which I had seen in the rivers of the French islands. A similar discrepancy caught my attention in the vegetable physiognomy of the island. The soil appeared richer than in the rest of the West Indies, and in several places it seemed fertile to excess. On going to the chase, I observed quadrupeds which I had not before seen, and was convinced by almost every object that I had arrived in a new country. Hence I took the determination of settling in the island.

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Whatever winds prevail in Trinidad, in the interval between November and May, they are seldom accompanied by any rain. At the end of April, the heat increases by an insensible progress, the easterly and northerly winds becoming less cool; and, at the end of June, the heat is greatest. Storms then commence, and become more and more frequent till August, September, and the beginning of October, by which time they are of daily occurrence, and attended by torrents of rain. Nothing is more remarkable to an European, than the manner in which a storm takes place in this country. The air is calm; not a breath agitates it; the vault of heaven is azure and cloudless. All at once we perceive, in some part of the atmosphere, a grey speck, which in four or five minutes becomes a great black cloud; at first, slight gleams of light proceed from it; they soon become more considerable; in a moment the barometer falls one or two lines; the thunder rolls, and a torrent of rain pours down in an instant. In general, these deluges do not last many minutes, and scarcely ever so long as half an hour; and, when the rain ceases, the atmosphere becomes as calm and the sea as smooth as before. In this manner it rains fifteen or twenty times in a day during the wet season; and yet, a few moments after each storm, we can hardly discover that any rain has fallen. During the night, rain seldom occurs: but a heavy shower, without any storm, generally takes place in the wet season half an hour before sun-rise. Hurricanes are unknown at Trinidad, Tobago, and the adjacent parts of the continent. Nature seems to have placed a barrier to these desolating storms in the mountains which extend along the coast of Cumana, and rise to a much greater height than the surface of Trinidad, Tobago, or Guiana. Those mountains, being placed to the westward of these countries, protect them from the violence of the westerly winds by which hurricanes invariably commence, after having run round, in the course of a few minutes, every point of the compass.

From June to the middle of October, the degree of heat is nearly stationary; after the latter period, it falls as the storms and rain decrease. At the town of Port of Spain, Fahrenheit's thermometer during summer is generally between 78° and 80° before sun-rise; and between 84° and 86° from sun-rise to sun-set. In the evening, it usually falls to 82 ; and at particular times in August and September, when the atmosphere is loaded with moisture, and the season is very stormy, it has been known to rise to 90° . In the course of nine years, however, I have only twice seen it so high as 93° , at both which times we felt shocks of an earthquake. Wind accompanied with rain in the night has the effect of lessening the morning heat; and whenever rain is preceded by violent claps of thunder in the daytime, a similar mitigation of heat is felt in the evening: but when the rain is neither preceded by thunder nor followed by wind, the atmosphere is heavy and the heat intense. The average fall of rain in Trinidad, during the wet season, is about 62 inches. I attempted to calculate the extent of the dew during the dry part of the year, and found it amount to eight or nine inches; taking into the account a few slight showers. It is curious that the falls of rain in Trinidad have gradually diminished since progress has been made in clearing the woods. The old inhabitants bear testimony to this fact, and point
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ent the river St. Joseph as having been navigable thirty years ago considerably farther up than it is at present. In the course of observation for fifteen years, I have discovered that the rivers running westward had much less water in them in 1806 than in 1791, while no diminution was perceptible in the streams of the east and north, where the progress of cultivation has not been such as to affect the extent of the forests. Though Trinidad has no mountains of magnitude, the fall of rain is equal or superior to that which occurs in the most uncultivated of the Leeward islands, in consequence of its proximity to the elevated region of Cumana. With the rainy season, commences the swell of the river Oroonoko, which continues in a state of gradual increase from the end of April to the end of August. In September, its waters are at their height, being about forty feet above their level in the dry season. All its borders are then overflowed, and its islands hidden from sight. In October, it begins to fall, and is at the lowest in March. These variations are regular and uniform. The melting of the snow in the Cordilleras of Bogota appears to have an effect in swelling the river before the operation of the rains. M. *Humboldt* has beautifully described the reviving effects of the wet season on the borders of this river. The animals around it seem to undergo a kind of resurrection, and multitudes of wild cattle rush panting from the parched desert to quench their thirst in the friendly stream. I myself have seen these animals plunge into the water, and drink such quantities as to expand their bodies in a few minutes, and, in the course of some hours, they die, floating on the surface.

To the southward, however, in the Dutch colonies, the dry season is cooler than the wet, in consequence of the refreshing operation of the sea-breezes. Here, as in Trinidad, the fall of rain has been considerably lessened by the advances of cultivation. It is common to reckon two wet and two dry seasons; the former taking place first in December, January, and February, and afterward in June, July, and August. The rest of the year consists of dry weather. During the rains, the land-winds prevail, and are accounted healthy: but the musquitos fill every room in a house; and the planter, who undertakes to clear new grounds, is obliged in a manner to live in smoke, in order that he may enjoy some rest at night. In the dry season, the sky is of a brilliant azure, and it is light in the morning as early as four o'clock, in consequence of a mild and gradual twilight. The chief heat is felt between seven and ten o'clock in the forenoon: at the latter hour, a sea-breeze begins, and restores animation to drooping nature; it continues all the day, and does not die away till ten o'clock at night. — The climate of Trinidad is not so wet as that of Guiana, nor so dry as that of Cumana. Being an island, it feels the influence of the winds more constantly than them, and in November the season becomes delightful. This is the time of the east and north-east winds, which come in refreshing currents from the cool regions

regions of North America. Even during the warm season, in some situations at Trinidad, the thermometer indicates only a moderate degree of heat: such as on hills, or rising grounds, situated at the opening of valleys watered by rapid rivers, where a current of fresh air constantly prevails. Of this description are the valleys of St. Anne, Maraval, Diego Martin, Aricagua, and the heights of St. Joseph in the north-west, as well as the valleys along the north coast of the island; and fortunate are they whose habitation is fixed in this region of pure and elastic air.

Still, we must not conclude that, in a tropical climate, the body feels so much heat as in Europe under the same state of the thermometer; the perspiration is much more free, and this circumstance is productive of great relief, particularly to those who adopt the use of flannel. The bad health which is so frequent in the West Indies is, in a great measure, the consequence of irregular habits or vexation of mind; and, among those who are born in the country, we see repeated examples of an old age exempt from gout, rheumatism, or that privation of the organs of sense which attends a similar period of life in a cold climate. The aspect of the sky at night is delightful, and the multitude of stars recall the impression produced by Arabian descriptions. In extent of dew, Trinidad surpasses the other islands, in consequence of its contiguity to Guiana; and, even during the dry season, the vegetables are seen to be refreshed with moisture in the morning, as if rain had fallen during the night. The ground is consequently in a state of perpetual pruriency, and carries the trees to a height and a luxuriance of which the native of Europe has little idea.

No island has undergone more rapid changes, in culture and population, than Trinidad. In 1783, the inhabitants consisted of 2000 Indians, and only 800 negroes and whites. The numbers continued to increase during the following years, by arrivals of fraudulent bankrupts and runaway managers: but, in 1790, the troubles in the French colonies brought thither additions of a more respectable character. Accordingly, in 1797, on the capture of the island by the English, the population had risen to 18,000 of all descriptions, chiefly negroes. Until 1783, a single Dutch merchant at St. Eustatia had been in the habit of executing the whole foreign business of the colony, through the medium of one vessel of 150 tons burden. In 1787, was established the first sugar-work, and soon afterward a considerable smuggling trade took place with the Spanish Main. Between 1797 and 1802, the population rose to 24,000, and the manufacture of sugar to 15,000 small hogsheads, the trade of the island requiring sixty merchantmen.

men. In 1807 the population amounted to 31,000: but of these two-thirds were slaves; and the sugar-exports were 18,000 hogsheads. Here, however, the culture of sugar came to a stand; the low price at home, and the enhancement of plantation-stores, reducing the planters to a distressed condition. The culture of coffee has decreased considerably, the high grounds in Trinidad having too little soil to support the coffee-trees; and, though they are found to succeed in the plain, the want of a market in England has discouraged the extension of their culture. Altogether, Trinidad has a title to be called highly fertile. The part which is unsusceptible of cultivation is not perhaps a thirtieth of the whole; and, if the deficiency of rivers is in some degree an obstacle to the manufacture of sugar, the use of steam-engines has been found a successful substitute. Those engines are much preferable to wind or cattle-mills, and are surpassed only by water-mills.

Tobago. — This island was discovered by Columbus, but was not settled till 1632, when some Dutch navigators, returning from Brazil, were attracted by its promising appearance. A company of Flushing merchants found means to induce a body of 200 settlers to transport themselves thither, and gave the island the name of New Walcheren: but the settlement was destroyed two years afterward by an irruption of jealous Spaniards from Trinidad, and remained uncultivated during twenty years. In 1654, the mercantile house known by the firm of Brothers *Lampsins* obtained from the Dutch government a charter, intitling them to the possession of Tobago, and giving them the right of naming even the magistrates and the governor. The *Lampsins* were men of talents and enterprize, and soon rendered New Walcheren a *depôt* of European goods. The Dutch were soon disturbed, however, by the arrival of a colony of Courlanders; the Duke of Courland having received, in consequence of his marriage-connection, a grant of the island from the royal family of Great Britain. These Courlanders were allowed to settle in a quarter which is called to this day Courland Bay, and even to erect a fort: but they found it necessary in a few years to put this fort into the hands of the Dutch colonists. In the war of 1664, Tobago became a rendezvous for the Dutch and French men of war cruising against the English. No notice being taken of the disputed point of its sovereignty, at the negotiation of Breda in 1667, the Dutch continued in possession for several years: but, having suffered much injury from a French fleet in 1675, they evacuated the island in 1677. As no colonization by the French took place, the claim of the Duke of Courland was revived: but, the treaty of Utrecht not having provided explicitly for the possession of several islands colonized

colonized by a mixture of French and English, it was stipulated at Aix la Chapelle in 1748 that "St. Lucie should belong to France, while Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, should be considered as neutral:" that is, that the subjects of any European power should be permitted to settle there, without the establishment of a garrison by any particular government. This arrangement was felt as a hardship by the majority of the colonists of the three first-mentioned islands, who were of French extraction: but, at last, by the peace of 1763, the French crown made a final renunciation to England of all her claims on Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. At this time, the population of Tobago amounted to 1500; and a commission being appointed to make grants of land, it began to be cultivated with so much spirit that in 1777 the number had risen to 12,000, of whom three-fourths were negro labourers. The transfer of British capital was very large, and the favourite articles of culture were sugar and cotton. The latter, however, declined: but, in 1782, the sugar-crop exceeded 12,000 hogsheads. The island, being taken by the French, was confirmed to them by the peace of 1783: they gave the colonists a countryman as governor, in the person of General Arthur Dillon, and left the island in possession of its former laws and constitution. Tobago therefore continued in fact British, the chief part of the produce going to the British mortgagees under cover of the French flag. The new French settlers were very few, and were wholly divided among themselves, in consequence of the Revolution at home; to which one party was adverse, while others were its strenuous advocates. In 1793, the colony was taken by the British, and the French settlers were either removed, or found it expedient to withdraw. Tobago shared largely in the extension of cultivation which followed the rise of sugar at this time; and it was a great mortification to the settlers and their friends in England, that the island was ceded to France by the peace of Amiens. That negotiation was conducted by the British in a low tone, and Bonaparte had loudly declared that he would not surrender even a rock which had belonged to the antient French monarchy.

Tobago remained only twelve months in the hands of the French, being repossessed by us on the first of August 1803; and the French settlers being again sent off the island, very little cause appears for any apprehension of its cession at a future period. M. D. LAVAYSSÉ speaks with approbation of the leading planters in Tobago, such as the late Mr. Røbley, whose extensive estates are on a footing of accommodation which is very seldom exemplified in the West Indies. The

negroes on these properties are fed in a great measure on maize, which is ground in a large mill, and delivered in a state fit for immediate use; instead of being given, as is common in other parts, in the shape of grain, to be ground with much trouble by hand-mills. This French traveller is, however, in very bad humour with the croud of Scotchmen whom he found in Tobago and other parts of the West Indies. Having lived at Edinburgh, and been acquainted with the eminent men of that city, he is puzzled to account for the difference that exists between them and their countrymen on the other side of the Atlantic. In 1802, the population of Tobago was 18,000; of whom, however, only about six or seven hundred were whites. Its annual produce amounted to nearly 20,000 hogsheads of sugar.

Caraccas, or Venezuela. — We now come to the account of the Spanish colonies. The subject is here more general, and exhibits the reasoning powers of this observing, though not always accurate, traveller, in a more favourable light. In his political creed, he is an advocate for the emancipation of Spanish America, and a resolute opponent of the monopoly so long exercised by a jealous mother-country. Speaking of the different classes of the population, he observes that the Spaniards born in Europe hold the first rank, being in general the occupants of public situations. To Spanish Creoles he is less partial than to the Creoles of the French and English islands. Unluckily, from the prejudices of the Spaniards, the law and the church form almost the only favourite lines as professions for youths of genteel families. Though the military career has been but lately opened to them, it has become extremely popular, nothing making the heart of a Creole youth beat so strongly as the sight of a sword and epaulet. With regard to the slaves, an important privilege, unknown among the French and English, is here granted to this humble class. If a negro be treated unjustly or cruelly by his master, he is at liberty to carry a complaint to a judge, and to demand a change of servitude, on getting the sum of three hundred dollars paid down. The consequence is that he has thus the means of passing into the hands of a proprietor of known humanity.

The maxim of the Spanish government, respecting her Trans-atlantic colonies, has always been the coarse and harsh system of ruling by keeping different classes in opposition to each other: to which may be added, a rigid prohibition of intercourse with other countries, emanating from a parent-state which could herself furnish only a very limited supply of commodities. While the Dutch and English settlers, who occupied regions of far inferior fertility, were at liberty to barter their produce,

produce, and to procure in abundance the conveniences of life, the Spanish colonist was obliged to remain in a state of comparative privation. The productions of Europe might be cultivated in Mexico, Peru, or Caraccas, in various tracts of country, in proportion to the degree of their elevation above the level of the sea : but nothing of the kind was attempted, lest it should interfere with the sale of the supplies from Old Spain. Vines and olives having been cultivated privately to some extent, government sent out from Madrid an order for their extirpation ; which, however, it was not deemed advisable to carry into effect. The taxes were imposed in the most inconsiderate and impolitic manner. The working of mines seemed the sole object of the attention of the Spaniards; and they desired to have no more subjects in the New World than might be necessary to effect those hopeful undertakings. Charles V. sold in a lump the whole country of Venezuela, or Caraccas, to the Welzers, bankers at Augsburg, who made this region a scene of plunder and devastation. Subsequently, Seville, and afterward Cadiz, remained in the exclusive possession of the colonial trade. In 1728, was established the Guipuscoa company, who were allowed a certain latitude in point of navigation, but were obliged to confine their imports to the harbour of Cadiz. At last, the discontents in the British colonies excited the alarm of the court of Madrid, and produced the famous edict of 12th October 1778, known by the name of the "*Free Trade*." This measure caused a considerable amelioration of circumstances, but much was still wanting. Foreigners, who alone could carry the cultivation of those rich countries to an adequate extent, were rigorously excluded, and the chief supplies of merchandise continued to be smuggled. The British government gave the character of free ports in 1766, and subsequently in 1774 and 1775, to several harbours in the West Indies, favourably situated for a contraband traffic with the Spaniards ; and this was, in other words, holding out an invitation to the Spanish colonists to send produce thither clandestinely, for the purpose of being exchanged for British goods. M. D. LAVAYSSE enlarges with great emphasis on the extent to which the English carried this traffic ; the interchange on the Virgin islands alone, though a wild and uncultivated country, amounting to nearly a million and a half sterling in the year 1788.

In conclusion, we have to remark that the principal defects of this work consist in the prepossessions of the author concerning the laws of England on the subject of trade. While we admit that the Spaniards and French impose taxes with less regard to the welfare of trade than is common in this country, we can by no means contemplate our legislators in the light in which they appear

appear to the present author. In his eyes, our fiscal system, our bounties, and our drawbacks, form the fountain of British wealth. A time, however, is now come, in which well informed men in general are agreed in considering all such interferences as hurtful, and look for the wealth of commercial countries in other causes. Had M. D. LAVAYSSE been familiar with the principles of trade, he might have spared himself much false reasoning and violent invective against the British; as we might have done with regard to Bonaparte, if we could have been taught to believe, some years ago, that his projects of aggrandizement were the surest means of exhausting his dominions. Similar accusations are poured forth against the conduct of Colonel Picton when acting in the capacity of governor of Trinidad: but they are dictated by the heat of party, and by an inattention to the peculiar and trying circumstances in which that officer was placed. With the exception of this drawback, and several inaccuracies, (owing perhaps to the unfortunate detention of the MS. mentioned in the preface,) the work has a claim to rank with the most useful of the later publications on the West Indies. Among other well founded observations, we find (Vol. ii. p. 433.) a correction of the customary exaggeration of the fertility of St. Domingo. The soil of that island, of Cuba, and of Trinidad, is undoubtedly superior to the soil of Jamaica: but, if we state the difference at a fourth, we shall probably not be under the mark, although in vulgar calculation it is not uncommon to hear it reckoned roundly at a half. M. DAUXION LAVAYSSE seems to be attached to the study of natural history, and has interspersed with his other remarks a variety of geological observations.

ART. III. *L'Hermit de la Chaussée d'Antin, &c.; i.e. The Hermit of the Chaussée d'Antin, or Court-road; or Observations on Parisian Manners and Customs at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century.* 12mo. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

THE art of book-making is still capable of several refinements. Here is an editor of a daily news-paper, an old bachelor in lodgings on the Chaussée d'Antin, (the Bond Street of Paris,) who is in the habit, when he has no victory to celebrate or public festival to describe, of furnishing some moral essay, or ethic picture, to fill up the blank column of his paper. Of these sketches, some had only a transient pretext, and some but a flimsy envelope; still there were others that depicted Parisian nature, or metropolitan fashions, which are here de-

attached from their evanescent associates. They are to form annually a volume, consisting of the Beauties of the *Gazette de France*. The origin of these papers is similar to that of the *Tatler*: they are distillations of essence from the wash of a quotidian news-paper.

No. I. is a picture of the author. Egotism considers itself as of first importance: but, in our judgment, the picture of the author should *conclude* his lucubrations:—when interest has already been excited by lively effusions, we have pleasure in discovering a harmony between the cause and the effect of entertainment. He professes to have worn a wig for fifty years, and to be in the habit of dining at some *restaurateur's* and of passing the evening at some theatre: such are the regular customs of the Parisian bachelors.

No. II. discusses some architectural improvements of Paris. The waters of the Ourcq have been conducted in a noble aqueduct to the site of the Bastille, where they repose in a large cistern, and, having become splendidly limpid, are thence distributed over a quarter of Paris hitherto distressed for water. A public fountain has also been constructed on the *boulevard* of the Temple, formed of four concentric basins disposed amphitheatrically, whence lions of bronze distribute the new and wholesome waters.

No. III., intitled *The Godfather*, describes satirically a French christening, and the expense levied on a guest of the house, by forcing on him the office of sponsor. This is a lively picture of manners peculiar to France.

In No. IV. we have the character of a hypocrite of frankness, *le Tartuffe de francbise*. There are people who affect frankness for the purpose of deception; and one of these is here singled out for delineation.

To No. V. is allotted the description of a visit to the country-house of a Viscountess. Having paid his entrance-money in the form of a present to his god-child, the author is invited to pass some weeks in Normandy at the seat of a military gentleman of rank. The lady prefers the invitation; and the author having excused himself on account of his habit of smoking tobacco, the Viscountess assures him that they have a *pavillon des fumeurs*, a smoking-room. The country-life of a distinguished and opulent family is then described. The party consists of seven guests and five persons of the house. Of the guests, three are artists, who leave behind them plans for a new wing, sketches of the best scenes on the estate, or a portrait of a great-uncle. To the breakfast, succeed billiards and music; during which the guests disperse until the sound of the dinner-bell. After dinner, parties are formed for

walking, the old admiral collects his smokers, and the lady of the house takes her party to visit poor cottagers to whom the company make presents. Music, or sometimes a dance, succeeds to the evening repast, and is considered as the notice to withdraw.

No. VI. paints a bourgeois of Paris. — In No. VII. the author visits a modern boarding-school for young ladies; and the satire of costly and frivolous accomplishments is well timed and well executed. — In No. IX. the eloquence of the bar is blamed for affecting technical jargon. — No. X. continues No. VI. — No. XI. Correspondence. — No. XII. laments the loss of old women in mixed society, and points out their value as a restraining cause; by dressing like young persons, they are obliged to sanction what is in unison with the inclination of young persons.

The *Album* is the subject of No. XIII. Every lady at Paris now carries in her *ridicule* an album; and when introduced to any person of celebrity, or captivated by personal arts of ingratiating, she adroitly seizes an opportunity of asking for a couplet, or a sentiment, or at least a signature of reminiscence, in this album. The Hermit promises to open an office, in which couplets adapted for all usual opportunities shall be sold ready made.

No. XIV. On Burial-grounds. A number of epitaphs from the cemetery of *Montmartre* are here included: one of which, on a girl who died at twelve years of age, may serve as a specimen:

“*À peine tu vécus, hélas ! quelques printemps ;
Dans nos cœurs desolés tu vivras plus long temps.*”

Our country church-yards may boast of nearly equal poetry.

From No. XV. on the Album, and the Sentimental Band-box, we may make an extract that is amusing:

‘The radical principle, which was to bear a foliage of albums, may be discerned in that spirit of pride, or exaltation, which prompts us to leave traces of our passage in every place that cannot be approached without danger, or without some remarkable intention. Hence those inscriptions on the rocks of *Vaucluse*, on the pyramids of *Gizeh*, or the spire of *Strasburg*; and hence the *ex-votos* of pious pilgrims at *Compostella*, or of sentimental pilgrims on the tomb of *Rousseau* at *Ermenonville*.

‘The most celebrated inscription of this kind is that which the second of our comic poets wrote on the album of the polar circle:

“*Sistimus hic tandem, nobis ubi defuit orbis.*”

‘Next comes the mural album. On the walls of the temple of *Æsculapius*, it was usual for the sick and the doctor to hang up a joint account of the case and the remedy: and *Hippocrates* collected

from such albums the empirical practice of his age. At all times the walls of schools, of inns, of prisons, and of guard-rooms, have been registers of the *impromptus* or unpremeditated sentiments of men. Chalk, pencil, or pen, or even the flame of a candle, has been compelled to perpetuate the record of these explosions of *ennui*.

‘ From the indecent arabesques of the boys in our lyceums, to the vindictive heart-felt cry of the Florentine prisoner,

“ *Exoriare aliquis nostris ex ossibus ultor !* ”

how widely various is the range of feeling ! The rooms of inns offer especially a vast harvest ; and I wish that some of those who follow our officers and public agents, along the high roads of Italy and Germany, would amuse themselves with regularly transcribing into their own albums the *good things* which are scattered in perishable inscriptions on the wainscot of every common apartment. On the same wall I have read a thought worthy of *Pascal* or *Bruyère*, or a couplet which *Delille* might envy, and about it have found ornaments which an engraver could not allowably copy unless from the antique, and words in which only a musketeer can exhale the sigh of love. Will no literary postillion rescue the best of these treasures from the impending oblivion of the brush ?

‘ Let us now pass on to the most usual album, the moveable one, which consists of a blank volume, and which is to be filled by the concurrence of two wills. The origin of these albums is noble, holy, majestic. *Saint Bruno* had founded in the bosom of the Alps the cradle of his order ; and every traveller was to be received there for three days, with a grave and decent hospitality. At the moment of his departure, a book was presented to him, in which his name and the date of his stay were entered by himself ; and this was usually accompanied with some grateful ejaculation, extracted from the anthologies of inspired piety. The aspect of the mountains, the roar of the torrents, the silence of the monastery, the sublime religion of the place, the humility of the lean monks, before whom time was ever absent and eternity ever present, could not but waken, alternately, in the guests of their august dwelling, elevated thoughts and affecting expressions. What is become of this register ? Have the banished monks carried it with them in their emigration ? Is it buried in some obscure archive at Grenoble ? Be not surprized at my anxious questions ; for this album of the *Grande Chartreuse* is unquestionably the parent and model of all the European albums.

‘ The degeneracy of its children, a numerous posterity, may be mortifying ; and yet a pious consolation, which they might indulge, is found in preserving or collecting the traits of forefathers whom we venerate or admire. Allow it to be self-love, which borrows the garb of affection to build a trophy to glory, still it is a self-love so like that which superintends the best sources of our happiness, that we may safely concede to it every importunity, except the privilege of reprisal. The future often gives a value to little collections, in which a contemporary would discover merely the ridiculous side. The English set a value on autographs, and fac-similes, which only preserve the hand-writing of celebrated persons. *La guirlande de*

Julie

Julie was sold at a Parisian auction for 14,000 livres; and surely many modern albums contain as many traits of wit, and of variety, as these insipid madrigals from the Hotel de Rambouillet. I do not despair of seeing a girl married, at least by an antiquary, because her dower includes the album of her grandmother. In this mathematical age, who would overlook such a possibility?

Another custom exists, not indeed so generally, but among the most refined of our travelled ladies, which may be considered as the album improved,—as the ultimatum of passionate friendship. Nervous ladies of sensibility, whose vague inquietude never permits them to remain too long on the same spot, have imported this usage. They are annually travelling; and they have the convenient glibness of travellers in attaching themselves suddenly and warmly to those whom they have seen but for a week, or a day, or an hour. They cannot bear a separation, therefore, without carrying away some keepsake, some token of remembrance, something that had been attached to the person of their friend;—a ring, a necklace, a feather, a dry flower, an old ribbon at least, or a shred of gauze. Nothing is unmeaning, nothing is contemptible, in these symbolic favours. The strange affection of Vitellius would be applauded, who carried in his pocket the shoe of the wife of Claudius.—When these lovely despoilers return to their home, their first care is to arrange the trophies of their alluring cordiality, in some pretty piece of furniture, not a temple but a shrine to friendship, which is henceforth denominated *The Sentimental Band-box*. On the outside, it is decorated with wreaths of unfading flowers painted by the fairest hands; and, within, it is filled with what vulgar souls might mistake for lots from an auction of fashion's cast-off trinkets. Each of these is carefully ticketed with the place, the date, and the name of the beloved donor; and, as often as the cabinet is exhibited by particular favour to the friend of the day, these records enable the memory of sensibility to avoid any gross mistakes respecting the reliques of her inmost worship, and the objects of her cordial idolatry.

I am sorry that I cannot conscientiously ascribe to my fair countrywomen the invention of the sentimental band-box. I doubt not that they will know how to embellish that which they adopt, and to render any object, which is stamped with the seal of their approbation, worthy of the records of fashion and of elegance:—but I understand that in Poland the practice originated.—Is it that where literature is little cultivated, where a language supplies few passages worthy of quotation, and where intercourse comprehends many foreigners and many of the nobly unlearned, the Homeric practice of interchanging keepsakes is the least inconvenient and most natural token of reciprocal esteem?

Nos. XVI. and XVIII. contain Correspondence.—No. XVII. A Banker's Family.—No. XIX. A Gallery of Originals.—No. XX. The Anti-chamber. This is a good delineation, entirely in French nature, and very interesting: but more adapted to please the traveller than the homely reader.

Correspondence again occupies Nos. XXI. and XXIII.; and No. XXII. relates, as true, a story which is so improbable

that we hesitate to believe it. The author should name the parties, and facilitate investigation; there must be overcharged narration; specific expectation has surely been substituted for general extravagant confidence in their own good luck.

The Porter, Almanacks, and New Year's Gifts, constitute the subjects of the last three numbers.

From the foregoing list of contents, our readers can form a sufficient idea of this little volume; which, to the *Beau Monde*, to the *Belle Assemblée*, to the *Lady's Magazine*, or to any periodical publications which aim at amusing the gay and fashionable world, may be made to furnish several pleasing contributions. Some personal knowledge of Paris is requisite to follow the author through all his sketches of locality and local life: but with this knowledge it is agreeable to attend to his various delineations. They have not the *cap-à-piéd* accoutrement of *La Bruyère's* characters: but, if they betray less of the artist, they exhibit more of likeness to nature. Our English books of this kind are rather numerous than lively. We know not why the *Hermit of the Chaussée d'Antin* should not rank with the *Tatler* of Sir Richard Steele; unless, perhaps, a tone of better company be thought to pervade the writings of the English knight.

ART. IV. *Biographie Universelle*, &c.; i.e. Universal Biography, Antient and Modern, &c. By a Society of Men of Letters and Science. Vols. III. and IV. 8vo. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s. sewed.

THE first two volumes of this important and excellent work were analyzed at some length in our lxvith Vol. p. 474—482.; and in completeness of nomenclature, though not perhaps in patience of compilement, these two next volumes rival the former. The co-operators are become more numerous, and the eye of one or another of them ranges into the farthest and dimmest corners in which human activity has spun its webs: but, lest he should keep the printers waiting for manuscript, the editor has not always returned to the authors the crude and unfinished scraps of copy which he ought to have refused. Indeed M. AUGER, if we judge from the biographies of his own contribution, is by no means the severest critic among the set of writers who are engaged in this undertaking, either in a moral or a literary view. Much candour and good nature, not to say *glibness*, appear in his appreciations: he is willing to be contented with something less than taste, and something less than purity, in the characters which he has to chronicle or to employ; he is the reverse of fastidious: but he has not, like certain

certain English editors, a sympathetic predilection for allowing Dulness room to stretch herself.

An admirable article in the third volume is the life of Aureng-Zeb, by LANGLEËS. It is not only founded on original consultations of oriental writers still in manuscript, but is drawn up with condensation, proportion, and critical originality. Were not this life so extensive as to occupy sixteen entire columns, we would translate it for the instruction of our readers : but it ought not to be overlooked by the publishers of miscellanies, who can more conveniently adopt and insert extensive extracts. Other lives connected with eastern literature, and composed by JOURDAIN and SALABÉRY, do great honour to this biographical dictionary, and make an important addition of new historical fact to the circulating stock of European intelligence.

We translate a short life, which displays a precise and courageous tone of criticism :

‘ *Banks, (Thomas,)* an English sculptor, born about the middle of the eighteenth century, enjoyed two advantages which were wanting to his rival *Bacon* ; that of having been educated for his art, and that of having travelled in Italy. Though he may not be placed on the same level with his cotemporaries Canova, Julien, and Sergel, yet he deserves a distinguished place among good statuarys. His best works are a Caractacus, and a Cupid, which he executed at Rome, and brought home with him in 1779. When he returned to England, the fashion was to encourage the opening school of painting, and modern statues were not in request. Among his rich countrymen, therefore, he could meet with no purchaser for his Cupid ; a disappointment which determined him in 1781 to set off for Petersburg, where the Empress bought this statue, and placed it in her English garden at Czarsco-zelo. *Banks*, though superior to *Bacon* in the taste and correctness of design which belong to his insulated figures, is equally unfortunate in his larger compositions ; as may be observed in the monuments of the celebrated Nelson and Captain Burgess, lately put up in the cathedral of Saint Paul.’

In this as in many other articles of the *Biographie Universelle*, we have to complain of an inconvenient meagreness of personal detail. The date or place of birth or burial are both omitted : but the principal works are carefully noted, and freely characterized. It is important for the guardians of our domestic celebrity to re-examine the opinions and judgments here pronounced, in so decisive a tone, concerning the various candidates for reputation ; and occasionally it may be requisite to enter a protest, and to appeal from the verdict-sanctioned by M. AUGER. The names of *Beddoes* and others whom we have recently lost from our legion of honour are recorded.

In the fourth volume, a remarkable and eloquent piece of writing is the life of *Beccaria*, by LALLY-TOLENDAL : but too much controversial criticism respecting the soundness of this author's principles has been admitted into the article. Lives of philosophers, in the manner of *Bayle*, are proper to publish, but not proper component parts of an Universal Biography. The province of the reviewer should not be confounded with that of the annalist : not the argumentation, but the result only of a critical inquiry was here in its place ; and the long note in censure of some obscure propositions would be better disposed in a preface to a translation of *Beccaria*, than in a dictionary which no where else tolerates annotations. Is the following assertion sufficiently authenticated ? '*Ce vénérable, cet illustre Lord Mansfield, l'oracle de la loi dans un pays ou rien n'est sacré que par elle, ne prononça plus le nom de Beccaria sans un signe visible de respect.*' It is not much in the character of an English Judge to express an unqualified and profound veneration for a foreign writer, whose principles are at variance with our whole system of criminal law.

A superfluous life is that of *Bridget Bendish*, the granddaughter of Oliver Cromwell ; even in our British biographies, it scarcely deserves a place : but the house of *Bonaparte*, no doubt, is supposed to be jealous of the remembrance, and desirous of ennobling the character, of every branch of the stem of Cromwell.

We select the substance of an Italian life, which has escaped the authors of our General Biography and of most others :

'*Bergamini*, (*Antonio*.) born at Vicenza in the year 1666, was learned in the antient languages, and skilled in mathematics and astronomy. The extreme purity of his morals gave him a disgust for the world, and led him to retire to a villa which he possessed in the Vicentine district, where he spent his time in gratuitously teaching the young and diffusing benefits among the old. His most intimate friend, and favourite guest, was *Andrea Marano*, a poet who died in 1744, aged eighty-two. *Bergamini* grieved so deeply for this deprivation, that it brought on a melancholy, which was supposed to have shortened his own days. In vain he attempted to exhale his grief in elegies ; it attended him to the tomb, to which he was consigned a few months after his friend, at the age of sixty-eight. He has published *Poems*, printed at Padua in 1701, promiscuously with those of his friend *Marano*. Portraits of the two friends, who were both very moderate poets, are prefixed to the volume ; and the preface, probably by *Marano*, praises the subsequent poetry with courageous vanity :

"*Ceu duo nubigenæ quum vertice montis ab alto
Descendunt Centauri.*"

'*Apostolo Zeno* satirized their conceit in a letter to *Muratori*, who coincided with his displeasure, and recorded it in a treatise *Della perfetta*

perfetta poesia. They replied to *Muratori* in a dialogue intitled *Eufrazio*, printed at Mantua in 1708. *Amenta* and *Paoli* attacked the *Eufrazio*: but the controversy was soon forgotten; and even *Bergamini* lost the recollection of it in his old age. He left a transcript of his poems carefully corrected for the press.—[GINGUENÉ.]'

The life of *Boethius* (*Boece*) is given ignorantly and carelessly. In reviewing (Vol. lxvi. p. 472.) a late historical work, we pointed out a prevalent misrepresentation of this senator's conduct; which was false to his prince for the sake of his church. He is here undeservedly described as tolerant; whereas he was unquestionably the reverse, and (contrary to his instructions) advised the Greek emperor not to relax in his persecution of the Arians.—Notwithstanding many similar occasional imperfections, hastinesses, and oversights, which in a promiscuous composition cannot wholly be avoided, but which in a future edition may be in a great degree remedied, we repeat decidedly our good opinion and recommendation of this work. The number of names considerably exceeds that of any other similar compilation; and if the lives of authors are given without much detail, the list of their productions is ascertained with bibliographical accuracy, and characterized with condensed precision. The classical and the oriental biographies are distinguished for neatness and research; and in the departments of literature and art a vast new stock of merit has been explored, deposited, labelled, chronicled, and criticized. We shall have pleasure in watching the progress of volumes so interesting, so convenient, so instructive, so comprehensive, and so judicious; and in laying before our readers farther specimens of the manner in which the design is continued.

ART. V. I. *Examen Critique de la Biographie Universelle*, &c.
II. *Suite de l'Examen Critique*, &c.; i. e. A Critical Examination, and Continuation of that Examination, of 'the "Universal Biography," &c. By Mad. DE GENLIS. 8vo. pp. 80. and 65. Paris. 1811 and 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3s. each.

MADAME DE GENLIS is somewhat of a literary busy-body. With habits of intercourse in the fashionable world, with much accomplishment in the modern languages, and with a diction epurated at Paris in royal times, she is still not a classical writer; and from the want of a sufficient knowledge of the antient languages, she frequently employs expressions which are derived from them in a manner that is inconsistent with the usage of antiquity. A difference prevails, and increases in every year, between the *upstart* style, which is faithfully

faithfully echoed from the lip of the genteel, and the *rooted* style, of which the basis is laid in the study of old language and sound writing. The style of the fine world perishes, but that of the learned world endures. Now Madame DE GENLIS, because she has attained that which pleases instantaneously, thinks that she has attained that which pleases permanently; and, with a diction which has already survived its own graces, she undertakes to criticize the phraseology of others, and to recall every author to the language of the days of her youth.

In these pamphlets, Mad. DE G. especially attacks the new *Universal Biography*; and it appears (p. 18.) that she would have preferred the success of a rival dictionary, the *Nouveau Dictionnaire Historique*, which republished with supplemental articles an old historical catalogue of lives of eminent persons. Probably she had co-operated in the unfortunate enterprize, and had supplied several of the supplementary English and other biographies. She is particularly displeased with M. *Ginguené*; whose comprehensive knowledge of Italian literature, lately displayed in his admirable abbreviation of *Bouterweck*, certainly qualified him in a singular degree to undertake the department of Italian lives in the *Universal Biography*.—The usual objections are urged; such as that many valuable lives are omitted in this collection. We suspect this to be exclusively true of the lives of ecclesiastics, who are now in France a less important class than heretofore, and who certainly do not find in the philosophical writers very pious protectors of their memory. It is also insinuated that many biographies might have been allotted to hands more adapted and more skilful. We had occasion to make this remark on the articles of M. *Tabarand*; but Mad. DE G. would unjustly extend it (p. 65.) to the articles of M. *de la Croix*. She complains that to this skilful mathematician was confided the life of *D'Alembert*, whose great and chief merit lay in mathematical science; and she would have called in a *littérateur* to appreciate his prose,—as if any of *D'Alembert's* literary fragments ever deserved the ceremony of appreciation: he was a philosopher, as Newton was a believer, without due learning in Scripture-criticism. M. *Suard* is, however, though reluctantly, praised by Madame DE GENLIS: his articles concerning English literature are written with much civility of animadversion. M. *Auger* is with some propriety blamed for too frequent attempts at pleasantries which are not strictly decorous. The biographer is not permitted to conceal the frailties of human nature: moral tolerance would expire, if men who were useful and eminent in former times were not known to have partaken the vices which incommode our own neighbour-

neighbourhood : but, as Madame DE GENLIS feels and observes, a difference exists between the indulgence of pity and the indulgence of complacency.

Madame DE GENLIS is to France what Mrs. Hannah More is to Great Britain : she is a very pious critic, and her opinion weighs with mothers of families : her orthodoxy is admired by the clergy, her zeal by the devout ; and she views through the green spectacles of faith, in a somewhat tinted day-light, the portraits exposed and the artists employed in the picture-gallery which she examines. In our judgment, a place at court is the secret ambition of Madame DE GENLIS ; and we should advise *Messieurs les Frères Michaud* (the booksellers) to propose to include her name among the contributors to the future numbers (or *livraisons*) of the " Universal Biography : " which she then undoubtedly will not disapprove.

ART. VI. *Traité du Croup, &c. ; i. e. A Treatise on the Croup.*
By F. J. DOUBLE. 8vo. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe.
Price 14s.

WE learn from the introduction to this volume that the Emperor of France proposed the subject of Croup for a prize-essay ; and that, having signified his intention to the School of Medicine at Paris, its members drew up a set of propositions, which they supposed would comprehend the most interesting points respecting the disease. M. DOUBLE's essay gained one of the prizes, and probably deserved the distinction, since it exhibits much research and medical learning, some knowledge of practice, and a considerable share of good sense. Its principal demerit is its length, a fault that generally attaches to prize-essays ; in which the author feels it to be in some measure his duty to say every thing that he can collect on the subject, to enter into all discussions, to answer all queries, and in fact to leave no open part at which his rival may get the start of him. On this account it is that prize-essays on scientific topics generally contribute as little to the real advancement of knowledge, as prize-poems to that of taste. Men of genius in the one, and of original observation in the other, seldom condescend, or indeed have it in their power, to drudge through a certain number of lines or pages, and would probably after all be exceeded by some person of more industry, but without half their abilities.

After some preliminary matter, which, considering the length of the work itself, might have been spared, M. DOUBLE announces the arrangement which he proposes to pursue. He divides the subject into the history of the disease, an account of the treatises previously written on it, the synonymy, its differential

tial character or diagnostics, its peculiar and specific characters, the classification of the different species, and the prognosis. Each of these points is treated much in detail, and some of them in a very satisfactory manner. The description of the disease consists principally of a number of cases, in all sixteen, part of which fell under the author's own observation, and some were communicated to him by his friends. They are related with sufficient distinctness, and several of them are unquestionably well marked instances of croup: but to others we should hesitate to apply this denomination. A difference exists in the character of the same disease as it occurs in various countries, depending on the nature of the climate, and the constitution and habits of the people: of which difference we judge not merely from the symptoms, but in part from the effect of remedies. In the northern districts of this island, inflammation of the lungs requires the abstraction of a quantity of blood which would destroy the more feeble frame of the inhabitant of the metropolis; and the case may be analogous with respect to croup, since otherwise we should much doubt whether a train of symptoms ought to be referred to this head which can be relieved by ether and opium. Yet this took place in some of M. DOUBLE's cases. We have also three in which the carbonate of potash was a principal means of cure; and we have an account of an infant said to have been restored by a pinch of snuff. After these cases, the author gives the history of the disease in a more general form; which, according to the plan of methodical arrangement that prevails among the French writers, is divided into five periods, of *'imminence, invasion, crudité, coction, et convalescence.'* To this arrangement, which proceeds on hypothetical opinions that are exploded in this country, M. DOUBLE adheres with strictness through the whole of the treatise; and it forms one cause of the unnecessary length in which he has indulged: but, admitting the propriety of the division, some merit is displayed in the detail of symptoms attending each period. Though the statement of the appearances on dissection is not so ample as some other parts, we may learn from it one important fact, that the patient does not die from suffocation, properly so called. A long account is given of the membranous substance which, in persons who have died of croup, is found lining the inside of the trachea; and which is here supposed to consist of mucus secreted from the part that becomes thickened and hardened by exposure to the air, but is not conceived to be organized. The chemical analysis of the membrane seems not to be very accurate.

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The literary history of croup occupies 120 pages; and, although unnecessarily extended, it is very learned, and on the whole judicious. The author seems indeed to have taken uncommon pains to collect every scrap of information, so as to have entirely exhausted the subject. Hippocrates, Galen, and Cœlius Aurelianus, all enumerate symptoms which probably ought to be referred to croup, but they had no idea of it as a distinct disease. *Baillou*, a French physician, described it with considerable accuracy in the 16th century; and *Ghizi*, an Italian, with still more correctness in the year 1747. About the same time, *Starr*, a Cornish practitioner, gave an account of the peculiar membranous substance: but no writer was sufficiently aware of its existence as a distinct disease before Dr. Home of Edinburgh, who wrote specifically on the croup in 1765, and who clearly discriminated it from all other affections with which until that time it had been confounded. Since Dr. Home, the writers on this malady have been numerous, but perhaps no great addition has been made to our knowledge of it: in some cases, indeed, the reverse has taken place, by the injudicious attempts that have been made to identify croup with other complaints from which it is important to distinguish it.

This review of the history of the disease leads the author to conclude that it has always been as frequent as it is at present, but that it has either not been noticed or has been confounded with other diseases, such as asthma and the different species of angina. The croup exists in all countries, and does not appear to be more frequent on the sea-coast than elsewhere. No clear case is recorded of an adult being attacked with it; but both sexes are equally obnoxious to the affection. It is never chronic, nor epidemic, nor contagious, nor is there sufficient reason to conclude that it is hereditary: it is frequently connected with catarrhal complaints, and with *cynanche maligna*.

In the section which treats of the diagnostics of croup, the author has laboured his point with peculiar assiduity, and has certainly displayed judgment and acuteness. The disease with which croup is supposed to be most frequently confounded is spasmodic asthma: but here are convulsions, the cough is not attended with expectoration, and the voice is not affected in that specific manner which, although difficult to describe, is easily recognized by any person who has once heard the peculiar sound. It has also been confounded with chin-cough, *cynanche maligna*, and more especially with common catarrh. From the two former it is not difficult to form a diagnosis, provided that we have a sufficient knowledge of the case: but catarrh passes into croup by such insensible degrees, as to render it often very doubtful.

at what precise point of the complaint it should be considered as having assumed the proper croupal character.

Respecting the division of the disease into its different species, the inflammatory, the catarrhal, and the nervous, M. DOUBLE exercises his talent for arrangement and discrimination, but (we think) with less effect than on some former occasions. As to the second species, it is very difficult to distinguish it from severe catarrh; and as to the nervous croup, we have always been disposed to deny its existence, and the author's arguments do not tend to remove our doubts. His practice necessarily varies much according to the nature of the species of which he has to treat; and indeed, under these several circumstances, it becomes of a dissimilar or totally opposite nature. He depends less on bleeding than we do in this country, which may perhaps be in part ascribed to a difference of climate and constitution: but we also believe it to be in some measure owing to his peculiar opinions respecting the disease, as being at some times inflammatory but at others of a contrary disposition. On the whole, we must repeat our favourable judgment of this work, as constituting a great body of valuable information, well deserving the attention of every medical scholar: though, considering it as a treatise for the use of the practitioner, it is not only too bulky but is in some respects defective.

ART. VII. *Mémoire sur le Croup, &c.*; i. e. A Memoir on the Croup, or *Angina Trachealis*. By G. VIEUSSEUX, M.D. Svo. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s.

IN our preceding article, we have given an account of a prize-essay on the croup by M. Double; and the memoir before us is said in the title-page to have obtained the *first honourable mention* in the same competition. It is less elaborate than its rival, enters less minutely into the literary history of the disease, and exhibits less display of learning and of extensive reading: but still it is a judicious and sensible treatise, and perhaps contains nearly as much that is really important as the larger essay of M. Double. It consists of eight sections, in which all the valuable information is conveyed respecting the nature and treatment of the complaint; and it concludes with a set of cases. The subjects of the sections are, the description of the disease, its diagnostic characters, its origin and frequency, occasional causes, mortality, state of the parts, treatment, and prevention. In the description, the author arranges the symptoms under three heads according to the order of time, viz those of the invasion, of inflammation, and of suppuration. He has apparently some foundation for this division into three stages,

stages, but the name given to the third is improper: it is intended to mark that period of the disease in which the peculiar membrane is formed that lines the inside of the trachea, but which is in many respects very different from the matter of suppuration. With this exception, we think that the chapter is intitled to much commendation, as containing a good history of the disease, and well calculated to convey a correct idea of it.

To the second section, as to all the others, is prefixed a set of queries, containing an exposition of some of the most important points that are discussed in them. The queries are the following: "What difference prevails between Croup and pulmonary catarrhs, as well as the various species of sore throat? Do the symptoms which are peculiar to it exhibit an essential difference between this disease and the others? Is any age exempt from it, and what are the periods of life to which it is the most commonly attached?" In the author's answers to these queries, we are disposed for the most part to coincide: but, probably for the sake of making his diagnosis more striking, he strains the phenomena to rather an extravagant length. He conceives that the essence of the disease consists in an inflammation of the trachea; and, as the trachea is not possessed of much sensibility, he concludes that the respiration, though rendered difficult, is not painful, and that the deglutition is not affected. In both these points, we suspect that the author's practical observations have been warped by his theory. We agree with him respecting the nature of the malady, and its specific seat: but we well know that inflammation is seldom strictly confined to one part; and, as a matter of fact, we have never observed the complaint in question without the appearance of some pain in respiration, and some difficulty in swallowing. Dr. VIEUSSEUX, we think, has been led into some degree of error by his anxiety to draw a decisive line of distinction between croup and the *cynanche laryngea*, or inflammation of the larynx: but perhaps the affections, though in their nature and origin quite dissimilar, never exist in any great degree without being more or less blended.

Section III. gives an account of the origin and progress of the disease. After having examined all the passages in the writings of the older authors which have been supposed to refer to croup, Dr. V. comes to the following decision: 'We find in the antients, in the earlier authors of the 17th century, and in those of the beginning of the 18th, some descriptions of diseases which present in part the characteristic signs of croup, but not absolutely such as we actually observe them.' He brings forwards many documents to prove that it was little noticed

noticed in many cities and countries, until within the last few years; and it would seem that it is now becoming more common in all situations. *Boerhaave*, *Sauvages*, and other writers of that period, who have described what they call *cynanche trachealis*, seem to have had in view the symptoms occasioned by the inflammation of the larynx; or at least the combination of it with proper croup. Perhaps the first person who unequivocally observed it was *Ghizi*; who saw it at Cremona in 1745: but we are disposed to agree with the present author that 'the first authentic work on the subject is without doubt that of Home.'

We pass over the intervening sections, and proceed to the seventh, which gives an account of the treatment. Considering the disease as decidedly inflammatory in its nature, the first point is to procure a resolution of the inflammation; and, if this object be obtained, all the difficulty may be regarded as at an end. The author takes much pains to shew that, when the peculiar membrane lining the trachea is formed, the disease is irremediable, and therefore that all direct attempts to dislodge it are useless. Generally speaking, we agree with him in this opinion; and we should certainly deem it very undesirable to lose any of that time in endeavouring to remove the membrane, which might be better employed in subduing the fever. For the purpose of abating this fever, and consequently removing the disease, he insists strongly on the necessity of blood-letting; which, he thinks, is generally done most effectually by leeches applied to the neck. Blisters are also considered as very important: while emetics and the warm bath, though occasionally of use, are regarded as medicines of secondary importance, and not to be employed to the exclusion of the others. Some cases may perhaps occur, in which the complaint is prolonged after the more acute symptoms are removed, when opiates and antispasmodics may be used with advantage, but they are comparatively rare. The author discusses at length the merits of tracheotomy, and concludes very sensibly that the operation can seldom, if ever, be advisable; because, in the commencement of the evil, other more effectual and less severe remedies must be tried; and at the conclusion it would probably be of no use. — About a third part of the volume is occupied with a detail of cases of croup, which are classed under ten different heads, according to their degree of violence, their period, their event, and the treatment which was adopted.

Another treatise on this subject remains for consideration.

ART. VIII. *Introduction à la Géologie, &c. ; i. e.* An Introduction to Geology, or to the Natural History of the Earth, by **SCRIP. BREISLAK**, Administrator and Inspector of the Gun-powder and Saltpetre of the Kingdom of Italy, and Member of various Academies. Translated from the Italian, by *J. J. Bernard, M.D.* 8vo. pp. 605. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s.

THE patience and sagacity of observation which were conspicuous in **M. BREISLAK's** *Physical and Lithological Travels*, and in his *Physical Topography* and *General Physical Map of Campania*, led us to anticipate the same estimable properties in the work now before us. We are glad to say that we have not been disappointed: for, although the titles of the chapters are unconnected, and by no means imply even a complete outline of geology, in the literal acceptance of the term, yet they invite to the consideration of some of its most important doctrines; and many of the collateral topics are incidentally noticed in the progress of illustration.

In the preface, we are duly reminded that the object of geology is twofold, embracing both the exposition and the explanation of the phenomena which the surface of our planet exhibits to our contemplation. The former, which constitutes the historical or descriptive part of the science, is the result of human observation; while the latter, which forms the theoretical portion, is founded on reasoning and conjecture. The mere facts and appearances are independent of imagination, and the rational inquirer may be more or less successful in his attempts to generalize them: but he can never be justly charged with surrendering his understanding to his fancy, while he observes with accuracy, and registers his observations with fidelity. When, however, from the phenomena we would remount to their causes, we are in danger of launching into the boundless ocean of speculation, and of wasting our time and talents in endless wandering.

The errors which adhere to all hypotheses that have hitherto been framed, to account for the structure of the globe, are here ascribed to two sources; viz. the present imperfect state of physical and chemical science, and the restriction of our geological researches to some of the merely superficial portions of the earth. The fleeting nature of man's existence, and the limitation of his powers, will probably for ever present insurmountable bars to his adequate conceptions of the formation of a world: but the idea that we know only a little of the earth's surface should be admitted with some degree of qualification; the inclined nature of its strata often affording specimens of its structure to a very considerable depth, and the sublime deductions of astronomy teaching us to believe that the

central parts, which lie so far beyond the reach of our senses, are of a nature more dense and compact than those which are exposed to our view. At the same time, we readily admit that we are still far from possessing a sufficient quantity of facts and data for the establishment of a complete system of geology; that all our conjectural reasonings on the subject ought to be founded on physical principles; that they should not militate against demonstrated truths, or facts that have been ascertained; and that they should not be urged with more confidence than their intrinsic worth may warrant. When these maxims are duly respected, the reference of detached facts to a few general propositions may contribute to impart connection and interest to our scattered knowledge, and prepare the way for philosophical approximations to such principles of geological science as may be brought within the scope of human comprehension. Yet, with whatever purity of intention the geologist may commence his inquiries, the fascination of some favourite sentiment, — suggested, perhaps, by the predominant appearances of the district with which he is most conversant, or by his own preconceptions, — is extremely apt to seduce him from that course of impartiality which he had resolved to prosecute. It has certainly happened that the authors and partisans of particular theories of the earth have more or less deviated from the canons just prescribed; and that many of them have evinced a more determined spirit to maintain their own tenets, than to countenance free discussion and to promote the interests of truth.

Under these circumstances, the present writer appears before the public with at least more modest pretensions, and a more limited range of design. ‘My object, in composing this treatise,’ he says, ‘is to exhibit a view of geology to the youth of Italy, to facilitate their comprehension of the authors who have written on the subject, to excite their curiosity, and to recall their reflections to many objects which are often placed before their eyes, but on which they bestow no attention whatever.’ He then endeavours to obviate the influence of a common prejudice, which would represent Italy, with the exception of its volcanic territories, as a country that offers few attractions to the geological student: but, when he stoops to eulogize the sway of *Napoleon-le-Grand*, (for so he designates him,) his language savours more strongly of ‘gun-powder and saltpetre’ than of learned academies.

‘I deem it necessary,’ he continues, ‘to apprise the reader, that he will find in this work principles different from those which some persons are desirous of introducing into geology. There is a school in Europe, (the Wernerian,) which deserves as much of that science as of mineralogy: it has attained to a high degree of respectability
by

by the celebrity of its founder, and by the number and knowledge of its pupils, whose dogmas have been so widely diffused that it will appear rash to subject them to the suspicion of doubt. It is far from my intention to rebuke that school in the somewhat just but rather too severe language of M. *Chenevix*, one of the most celebrated chemists of our age. (*Annales de Chimie*, tome lxxv.) I shall only remark that the authority of the chair, formerly conceded to him who occupied it, has for a long time past been granted to reason, observation, and experience. Some very vague and uncertain principles of that school, — many indeterminate ideas, (as, for example, the *more* or *less*, the *fewer* or the *greater number*,) — a mysterious nomenclature, devoid of all reasonable meaning, equally harsh in pronunciation and difficult of recollection, — many peremptory decisions, resting merely on authority, destitute of valid argument, and founded for the most part on detached observations, contradicted by many others which are passed over in silence, — form a body of doctrine apparently devised to repel from the study of geology all those who delight in reason.

‘ This doctrine, propagated by a hundred pens, of various powers and merit, has already penetrated into France and England, and would fain, at this moment, make its way into Italy. Hence it becomes necessary to put the Italians on their guard, that they may exercise their prudence and circumspection in selecting from it what is good; — of which the proportion is doubtless very considerable, both in mineralogy and geology, as far as the latter depends on observation; — while they abandon all that is preposterous and absurd in the systematic department.

‘ I have the satisfaction of perceiving that some principles which I advanced more than twelve years ago, and which were neither duly considered nor wholly rejected, now begin to appear less absurd. Time alone can inspire even philosophers with a relish of those truths that are repugnant to the notions which they have imbibed in the schools; and I shall reckon my labour well rewarded, if I can contribute to recall the minds of men to the path of observation and facts, and thus render the study of geology less unstable, more simple, and more easy.

‘ If I live, and have leisure to combine the various materials which I have collected, I may probably hazard the impression of a course of that science, to which I now publish only the *Introduction*; being desirous of ascertaining the opinions of learned naturalists, who are so numerous in our age. Although the principles, which I admit, appear to me of easy comprehension, conformable to the actual state of our knowledge, and corresponding to the phenomena which require explanation, I may have fallen into error. It is true that, previously to their publication, I courted the advice of individuals profoundly instructed in this branch of knowledge, with whom I had the happiness to be acquainted, who are not rare at Milan, and among whom I may be permitted to name *Volta*, *Paradisi*, and *Isimbardi*: but the friendship, with which they honour me, may perhaps have concealed from their view the more vulnerable parts of my opinions; and I am ready to sacrifice them, not to the authority but to the force of reasons,

which in geology have no import unless founded on observation, and countenanced by experience. On these two bases I have endeavoured to establish my conjectures; to the small number of observations which are peculiar to myself, I have added those which occur abundantly in the works of the best instructed geologists; and, with regard to experience, I have had recourse to the vast laboratories of nature's chemistry, I mean volcanoes. If experience ought to guide the philosopher, and if the experiments performed by volcanoes are the most magnificent of all, I think that we should be enabled to derive from them some fortunate explanations of geological phenomena. I am perfectly aware that I write at a period in which the mention of volcanoes is no longer tolerated; and that prejudice alone will suffice to withhold many persons from the perusal of a work that is founded on such phenomena, and induce them to condemn it without examination: but, whether they will or not, the facts subsist, and it only depends on themselves to verify them. They have resorted to the unfair proceeding of suppressing and dissembling those facts which they dare not deny, without calling in question the veracity of individuals who are not only learned but honourable, and who combat the doctrines which they are solicitous to establish.'

The subjects of the respective chapters are the primitive state of the globe, its original aqueous fluidity, its igneous fluidity and consolidation, the rocks created during its first consolidation, those which have been formed subsequently to that epoch, the phenomena which accompanied the process of its consolidation, fossil organized bodies, volcanoes, and basalt. — This intimation of the contents of the volume obviously points to a defect in the arrangement of its materials; for surely, if we can ever arrive at any certain or even any probable knowledge of the primitive state of our planet, it can be deduced only from its existing structure and condition. A map or portrait, therefore, of its present composition, — or, in other words, distinct and methodical statements of the nature, bearings, and relations of the masses of which it is composed, — should have formed the ground-work of all reasoning and conjecture relative to the prior order of things from which they proceeded. In accordance with the author's own precepts, we had anticipated a division of the work into two parts; — the first, a view of the most important facts and appearances, embracing an abstract of physical geography, and descriptions of the different kinds of rocks, with every thing that has been ascertained regarding their natural history; — and the second, a series of inferences regularly drawn from the previous exposition. M. BREISLAK, however, has adopted a more desultory, or rather a more mixed course; blending theory with facts, and gradually unfolding a system of geology by pressing facts into the explanation of peculiar doctrines.

In his first chapter, he infers the primitive fluidity of the globe from the laws of centrifugal force, and the doctrines of modern chemistry respecting aqueous and igneous crystallization; and, after having glanced at the nature of the primitive rocks and the sentiments of *De Luc*, *Dolomieu*, &c., he maintains that we are warranted to conclude, 1. that, in the primary stage of its existence the earth possessed that degree of fluidity which was necessary to the crystallization of its divided parts; 2. that the primitive crystallization of the globe must have been either aqueous or igneous; and, 3. that, if it were aqueous, the matter must have been either dissolved in the water or at least so much attenuated as to have remained suspended in it; or, lastly, that, if it were igneous, the matter required only to be blended with the quantity of heat that might be necessary to destroy the cohesion of its parts, and put them in a state of freedom.

Having, in the second chapter, somewhat rapidly, but with sufficient cogency, assailed the different modifications of hypotheses founded on the principle of the primitive aqueous solution of the present solid contents of our planet, and having urged some very forcible objections against Mr. Kirwan's doctrine of a chaotic fluid, the author resolves to inquire whether the hypothesis of igneous fluidity be more tenable, more conformable to the actual state of our knowledge, and more competent to account for appearances. As this igneous fluidity is one of his favourite themes, he labours at considerable length, and with much ingenuity, to establish and support it. In opposition to the sentiments of Count Rumford, he contends for the more popular notion that caloric is a real substance which has not hitherto been decomposed, and that it is pre-eminently fluid, since all fluid and gaseous substances owe their form to its presence in a free or a combined state. 'The atmosphere itself would be reduced to an inert and solid mass, if it were possible to subtract from it the caloric combined in the gases which compose it, and which give to it the permanently elastic form. Caloric, then, (one of the most simple substances with which we are acquainted,) existed also, we may presume, among the elementary matters which composed the globe at the first moment of its existence; and, if we conceive it to be equally diffused in the mass of all the substances, it would impart to them a degree of fluidity proportioned to its quantity, which we shall denominate *igneous*, to express its cause. Such an hypothesis will not appear strange, if we reflect that the *chaotic* fluid of the Neptunists presupposes the existence of all bodies, among which caloric certainly occupies a distinguished place.' The existence of heat, indeed, though variously modified, is admitted by most writers who have speculated

culated on the primæval state of the globe. *De Lac* seems to have required its agency to elevate the temperature of his primitive waters; and *Delamétherie* stoutly affirms that the primitive fire was the source of the central heat of the earth: but the former, according to M. BREISLACK, needed not to have recourse to both fire and water, since the first of these elements was competent to produce the effects ascribed to the joint agency of both; while the latter assigns no principle from which the primitive heat could be derived, except that the matter originally composing the globe was hot because it ought to be so. The present author's theory, on the contrary, proceeds on the supposition that caloric, being a substance *sui generis*, must have been coeval with azote, hydrogen, the simple earths, metals, &c.; have communicated to the mass in which it was diffused a temperature proportioned to its quantity; and have impressed on it characters corresponding to its quantity, or intensity. A mass of the heterogeneous but simple elements of compound bodies, blended with the matter of heat, may be conceived to cool without any loss or separation of its caloric, when, among the substances that enter into its composition, any have an affinity for caloric; because, in that case, combination takes place, the state of the substances is changed, and the heat, which was free and sensible, will become latent and absorbed. The quantity of caloric requisite to the fluidity of such a mass will not be very great: but the formation of the atmosphere and of the waters will, on the known laws of chemistry, account for almost any absorption of heat, however enormous.

‘We have certainly reason for believing that the formation of the two gases, which compose the atmosphere, would be sufficient to absorb any portion of caloric whatever. If, in addition to this consideration, we reckon the quantities consumed in the formation of water, what must be the amount? Let us suppose that all the fluid and gaseous substances in nature are suddenly reduced to a solid state, what an inconceivable quantity of caloric would remain free; and would it not probably suffice to fuse our planet in an instant? Now it appears to be certain that such was once the state of the world, if it be true that caloric is a matter *sui generis*, and that it forms an essential and constituent part of many substances which are very abundant in the actual system of things. Before compounded matters existed, when our planet was a confused mass of simple elements, caloric would be interposed between them, and would produce the same effects of which it would at present be the cause, if, separated from all the bodies with which it is combined, it became free and active.

‘Are we not intitled to assert that our globe, in the first period of its existence, was fused, when we reflect that it would be instantly so at present, on the liberation of the caloric which is combined with
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the gases and fluid substances? This idea will not, I presume, be unpalatable to those who suppose that our globe will at some period be destroyed by fire. Who knows that, in the series of causes which determine its condition, a time may not arrive at which all the fluids will be consolidated? The caloric, which in that event would be set free, would doubtless suffice to fuse the earth; and if ever, at any fixed period or epoch, it should resume the same combinations, the renovation of the globe would follow, in course: an idea which has occupied the minds of some philosophers.

‘We see not, however, any reason for supposing that the earth can be gasified, or reduced to a mass of elastic fluids; because, in proportion as the latter began to be formed, the free caloric would become latent, and solidity again ensue. Those philosophers, who represent the original state of our planet as a compound of gaseous fluids, would be puzzled to explain the consumption of the caloric set at liberty in proportion as the bases of these elastic fluids became solid; whereas, from the hypothesis of the mere igneous fluidity, produced by a diffusion of caloric in the mass of all the elements, we may deduce the cooling and consolidation of the globe, the production of the permanently elastic fluids which compose the atmosphere, and the fixation of caloric which has taken place, as well in these elastic fluids as in the vapours and many other substances.’

The formation of the gaseous fluids is not supposed to have taken place simultaneously, on all the points of the globe, but sometimes in one quarter and sometimes in another, according as their bases happened to meet, under circumstances favourable to their combination, with the particles of caloric. When urged aloft by their elasticity, the impulse of inferior currents, and their own rapid concourse from different regions of the world, they formed an atmosphere in tumult and disorder. Torrents of electrical matter are next described, as issuing forth with loud explosions, and creating water by their encounter with oxygen and hydrogen. The water, precipitated in streams on the still burning soil, was reduced to vapour, and, mingling with the other aqueous exhalations of the globe, augmented the commotion of the atmosphere; until the earth's surface, consolidated and cooled, had acquired a degree of consistency and hardness, the gaseous and electrical emanations had ceased, (or at least diminished,) the vapours were condensed, and tranquillity and repose visited for the first time the future habitation of man, destined to be afterward disturbed only by partial catastrophes.

Such views and conjectures may be as plausible as various others which have been proposed, on a subject so remote from human apprehension as the original condition of the world on which the lot of our generation has been cast. If we take their truth for granted, the consequences which M. BREISLAK deduces from them will be found not undeserving of atten-

tion. The consolidation and cooling of the mass are presumed to have proceeded from the centre to the circumference, and thus, at different periods, to have given rise to the stratification of the primitive rocks. The fracture and irregularities, observable in the superficial parts of the earth, are explained in a more satisfactory manner from the expansion and escape of elastic vapours and gases in the internal parts, which is exemplified on a small scale by the effects produced in torrents of lava. It is supposed that the external surface, in the course of consolidating and cooling, would compress the fluid parts beneath ; and that the latter, being of a more dense and homogeneous consistency, would re-act, so as often to elevate and tear them asunder : thus destroying the horizontality and continuity of many of the recently formed beds, and occasionally penetrating through their mass. Fissures and caverns might likewise owe their origin to the contraction and shrinking of the superficial parts, in the course of refrigeration. These ideas are not new, but not on that account more improbable ; and they have not been overlooked by the Neptunists themselves. Whatever may have been the degree of heat which existed, or is imagined to have existed, in the centre of our globe at former periods, the experiments of modern times seem rather to prove that, from beyond a very trifling depth to the greatest with which we are acquainted, the subterranean temperature, when not affected by local and accidental circumstances, is very moderate and uniform ; so that the actual existence of central fire is probably a mere chimera.

We are next presented with much close and forcible reasoning on the consolidation of the primitive rocks, as resulting from a state of igneous fluidity. On this principle, the real or supposed formation of granite is detailed with great ability ; and two very plausible objections to this view of the subject are met with such fairness, and removed with such felicity of argument, that we would gladly make an extract of the passages, if their length did not prevent us ; or if they would bear compression without manifest injustice to their connection and force. — Of all the primitive rocks, lime-stone appears at first sight to be the most refractory to the conditions of the hypothesis now before us : yet the author, in 1798, had ventured to insinuate that this substance also may have been the product of fire, from the circumstance of his having observed detached masses of it thrown up by Vesuvius. It is, indeed, commonly alleged that these stones are driven off from internal beds, and propelled upwards by the explosive force of the eruption, without being subjected to the action of fire. As the volcano, however, has been formed at the base of the Appennines, which

consist of secondary lime-stone, it is extremely probable that the subterranean heat may have exerted its principal influence on masses of that description.

'My friend, Mr. William Thomson,' says the author, 'happened to be at Castellamare, where he examined some stones taken from the rubbish of an old kiln, in which lime-stone from the neighbouring hill had been calcined; and he remarked that some of the pieces had lost their colour and become white, while others had changed the disposition of their primitive grains, and assumed the appearance of white marble, with grains more or less crystallized and compact. I have repeatedly had the pleasure of observing this interesting series of specimens in his rich mineralogical collection, which enabled me to trace all the modifications produced by fire on the common lime-stone of the Appennines, from its native state to its complete transformation into calcareous marble.'

Connecting this singular incident with the striking experiments of Sir James Hall, M. BREISLAK is inclined to believe that, calcareous earth and carbon having existed among the various matters which entered into the composition of the globe, and which were originally held in a state of fluidity by the caloric interposed between their particles, the carbon, combining with oxygen, passed to the state of acid; that, being prevented by the compression of the substances superimposed, or by some other circumstance, from assuming the gaseous form, it combined with the calcareous particles which were contiguous to it; and that the affinity which subsists between these two bodies, at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, would be much augmented by the influence of the caloric, which singularly modifies the affinities of bodies.

Among many judicious remarks on the various substances included under the equivocal appellation of *trapp*, we meet with a few strictures on the four distinguishing characters laid down by Faujas, between what he terms *compact lava* and *trapp*. 1. The glass of lavas, according to the last-mentioned writer, is of a very deep, black hue, shining, and very opaque; whereas that of *trapp* is transparent, and of a greenish colour, more or less dark. As these characters, however, must depend on many accidental combinations, it is properly observed that they are inadequate proofs of original difference. In fact, bottles manufactured of the *Intra trapp* are not, in point of colour, to be distinguished from those which are made of lava from the Euganean hills. 2. Compact lava, it is alleged, generally contains olivin, which never occurs in *trapp*. Yet, both *Gioeni* and *Dolomieu* enumerate many lavas in which no such substance has been observed. 3. The greater comparative hardness of lava, on which the French writer insists, is also a very

very uncertain criterion, because the volcanic tufas of Sorrento, and the *Piperno* of the Neapolitans, (different from the *Peperino* of the Romans,) are often extremely soft and tender; and between them and the purely vitrified substances, the intermediate degrees are very numerous. 4. The last distinction, namely, *polarity*, which is said to be limited to the basaltic prisms of lava, is not a more infallible test, because most lavas indicate only the magnetism of attraction; and that phenomenon itself depends on the degree of the oxydation of the iron which they contain.

It is admitted that the magnesian rocks seem to have little or no connection with volcanic eruptions: but M. BREISLAK is not aware of any objection that can be alleged against their formation by the primitive heat of the earth, in the same manner as lime-stone; and he instances precious serpentine as a proof of their igneous origin. This substance is composed partly of calcareous matters, and partly of magnesian. The white calcareous portions, which are often very considerable, have their margins tinged by the green magnesian substance, which gradually loses its colour as it insinuates itself to a certain depth; an appearance which implies a state of fluidity sufficient to permit two substances, of different colours, to penetrate one another. 'The same effect, (he says,) it is true, may be conceived to result from a solution of the two substances in an aqueous menstruum: but I deem it needless to repeat what I have already mentioned concerning the fluidity of the primitive rocks.' We may add that, if any one of the members of the primitive series can be proved to have proceeded from a state of igneous fluidity, an aqueous origin cannot be logically assigned to the others, which are held to be of contemporaneous formation.

Although the author is desirous of reducing all rock-masses to the denominations of *primitive* and *posterior*, and objects to the term *transition* of the Wernerians, he not only virtually recognizes the description of rocks which that term is intended to denote, but assigns their origin to a period intermediate between the production of the primitive and that of the secondary series of the present nomenclature, and even adopts the term for the sake of convenience. It is rather fastidious, if not incongruous, to quarrel with the appellation in question, on the principle that nature makes no *passages*, but *changes*: yet the double awkwardness of needlessly employing a substantive for an adjective, and of applying the epithet *secondary* to a *third* division, might have been easily obviated, by fixing on the natural and numerical titles of *primary*, *secondary*, and *tertiary*.

To proceed with the system.—The second, or intermediate series of rocks, is represented as formed from the refuse substances of the first general consolidation, and of the light triturated parts of the earth's heated surface, consigned to the motion of the primitive sea; which distributed, dispersed, and accumulated them, sometimes with regularity and sometimes in disorder. The heat and chemical principles contained in the waters are supposed to have contributed, in the first instance, to keep those materials dissolved and suspended; and afterward to have precipitated them, in the form of beds, which were often elevated, or overturned by the gaseous emanations proceeding from the earth, the internal parts of which still retained an intense degree of heat. This period, according to the present theory, is also that of the first traces of organization and vitality, though few generations of animals could exist in the then high temperature of the planet; and hence the scanty vestiges of organization in the intermediate rocks. The author states another cause which would, no doubt, eminently contribute to repress the multiplication of living beings; namely, the want of an atmosphere, which, it seems, was not yet created. How, then, could respiration be performed? Among the transition-rocks, M. BREISLAK includes *jasper*, and the *saxum metalliferum* of De Born: but his review of the whole class is very slight and superficial.

The origin of the secondary series, (third, in the order of time,) which exhibits comparatively so few symptoms of crystallization, and which has generally a stratified structure, is here attributed to the less disturbed precipitation of the cooler waters of the ocean. Stratification, however, it is accurately observed, is not an invariable character of their constitution; and examples are quoted of lines of separation in their mass, resulting from incipient decomposition, having been mistaken for the boundaries of beds and layers. The ensuing passage strongly corroborates the same idea:

‘Geologists, I apprehend, have not considered, with the requisite attention, the mode in which decomposition acts, and the modifications which it may impart to the external appearances of rocks. That energy, produced by the slow but continuous action of light, caloric, water, (either fluid or in the state of ice,) air, (either tranquil or agitated by the winds,) vapours, electricity, and all the gaseous fluids which are diffused or produced by means of new combinations in the bosom of the atmosphere,—that energy, I say, which has never ceased to act since the globe existed, (a term of some duration,) is an object well worthy of the examination and calculation of philosophers.

‘I think it is extremely probable that the great irregularity, which is sometimes observed in the superficial strata of certain rocks, is owing to the unequal distribution of some metallic substance; as, for example,

example, the oxyd of iron, or manganese, &c. which is generated in their mass, at the epoch of their first formation. The causes of decomposition, which we have just mentioned, exert their principal action on these matters; for in their direction they meet with the least resistance, and, in proportion to their progress, they destroy the continuity of the parts of the rock to which they give a semblance of stratification. *M. Marzari-Pencati* has communicated to me the following note, which gives, I think, some weight to this opinion:

"The quarry of Costoja is a most extensive repository of coarse-grained lime-stone, situated seven miles to the south of Vicenza, and near a navigable canal. At one period, it furnished the free-stone employed for building in Venice, Vicenza, Padua, Este, &c., but has been long since abandoned. At a little distance from this place, are two other quarries of the same stone, now worked for the use of the above-mentioned towns. The hill, when viewed internally, is apparently stratified, and exhibits thick and horizontal layers: but the interior of the recent excavation presents not the slightest trace of any such appearance; the stratification becoming evident, even in the internal parts of the hill, only where the surface of the workings has been for some time in contact with the atmosphere."

Copious emanations of sulfureted hydrogen, during the consolidation of the secondary rocks, are stated to have been the source of those deposits of sulphur and gypsum which occur in different quarters of the world. The saline substances contained in the waters of the ocean are presumed to have arisen at the beginning of the grand chemical combination of their elements; and similar combinations, daily repeated, though on an infinitely smaller scale, are quoted, for the maintenance of the saltiness of the sea, and the supply of its waste by evaporation, &c. The same combinations, it is alleged, take place in lakes, or on the dry soil, whenever a base that is susceptible of them occurs. The origin of coal and other bituminous substances is traced to the vegetation; which, aided by a favourable temperature, soon began to unfold on the uncovered and consolidated portions of the earth, when it was still subject to continual changes, occasioned by the falling in of caverns, or by torrents of gaseous fluids, which were constantly generated and expanded. In some of these revolutions, were precipitated into the sea masses of soil, covered with vegetables and animals: which, penetrated by the heat of the water and of the internal parts of the earth, would undergo decomposition; and, when reduced to a pasty state, would form sometimes beds, sometimes detached accumulations, and sometimes veins, more or less considerable, according to the circumstances of their situation, and of the matter which compressed them, or with which they were blended.

The first phenomenon accompanying the consolidation of the globe, to which the learned theorist adverts, is the formation

tion of metallic veins, layers, and masses. Rejecting the Wernerian doctrine of crevices filled by precipitation from above, as altogether untenable, he has recourse to that of elective chemical attractions, when the elements of the metals would participate in the fluidity of the general mass: a sentiment which derives illustration from the existence of metallic mines in volcanic districts, and from various other geological facts which we cannot stay to particularize.—The subsidence of whole tracts of country, from the roofs of extensive caverns giving way, is the next object to which M. BREISLAK draws our attention; and which, he conjectures, was awfully exemplified in the submersion of the Atlantis of Plato. His account of the formation of mountains and valleys shall be given, as nearly as we can render it, in his own language:

‘ When the earth was still fluid, the elements of the different primitive rocks united in different places, as the impulses of their reciprocal attractions and the resistances of other interposed matters permitted. The first degree of cooling produced by the separation of the caloric, and accomplished in the manner that we have explained, took place on the surface, which passed from the state of perfect fluidity to that of softness. The different stages of refrigeration formed different beds. The cooling process, meanwhile, gradually penetrated into the more inward parts; and, as it depended on the combination of the caloric with the solid portion of the gases, according as the latter were expanded, and directed towards the still softened surface, they heaved up portions of it, which, as they continued to cool more and more, assumed consistency, and became solid in the situation which they had received from the impulse of the gases.

‘ When an impetuous current of elastic fluids had opened a principal passage in one direction, the gases which were disengaged from the neighbouring regions found less obstruction in following the same path; and the elevated parts of the still soft surface facilitated the raising in the same direction of the other parts equally soft, and urged by the gaseous currents which had not effected their junction with the main stream: whence ought to result a certain correspondence of direction in all the moved and elevated parts. If we moreover conceive that the superficial parts had the degree of softness requisite to retain the situation which they had received from the impulse of the gases, the interior parts being hotter, and consequently still fluid, would, when the gases ceased to pass, fall back on themselves, and unite in closing the vacant space. The cavities, however, still remained, which had been formed in the superficial regions, and of which the sides were no longer fluid, but had begun to consolidate. These cavities, which were merely separations of continuity towards the surface, gave birth to the valleys; and, according to the mode in which I conceive them to be produced, it is obvious that, in each mountain-chain, they ought to have mutual dependencies and communications.’

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With this explanation, however, is combined the earth's rotatory motion :

‘ The immense torrents of elastic fluids which issued from the globe, during its consolidation, tended in a direction from west to east, because the motion of the earth to which they belonged was performed in that direction ; and, in the same direction, we still contemplate the traces and the effects of their passage.’

The formation of the secondary ridges is treated at still greater length, but in strict conformity with the leading principles of the work, and is accompanied by an analysis of *Pallas's* hypothesis of the same subject, with remarks.

In the chapter devoted to fossil organic bodies, we have a succinct recapitulation of the relics of different kinds of animals and plants which have been discovered in the mineral kingdom; and it will, we doubt not, afford much interesting information to those who have had no opportunity of perusing the more extended writings of *Cuvier*, *Faujas*, *Parkinson*, &c., which relate to this striking department of geology. For the present, we must be contented to remark that such vestiges have been distinctly traced, from the huge mammoth and elephant to the microscopic shell ; and specimens of the latter are not to be regarded as rare occurrences. *Soldani* collected from a single ounce, or 288 grains, of a stone which is found in the hills of Casciana and Perlascio, in Tuscany, 10,224 nautili, and 230 ammonites, of which the joint weight amounted only to 181 grains. The rest of the specimen, which consequently weighed 107 grains, was composed of fragments of shells of minute spines, of sea-urchins, and of a sparry calcareous matter. The occurrence of marine exuvix at 13,000 feet above the level of the sea, and of vegetable impressions at 2000 feet below it, is a phenomenon of which the solution has baffled the sagacity of the most profound naturalists. The present writer sifts and weighs with discernment the merits of their varying sentiments, and offers some considerate reflections, partly grounded on the views of *Buffon* ; some of whose positions, however, he hesitates not to impugn.

Treating of volcanoes, he observes that their agency is of a very limited range, as their operations seldom materially affect the constitution of the soil at some miles distance from them. Their principal phenomena he comprizes under exhalation of vapours, projection of incoherent matters, and eruption of lavas. The vapours which are discharged, when the mountain is in other respects in a tranquil state, usually contain some acid : — those from Etna abound in the sulfureous, and those of Vesuvius in the muriatic. They are likewise often impreg-

nated with saline substances, as sulfate of potass, carbonate of soda, and the muriates of soda and ammonia; all of which have been detected by *Dolomieu* and Thomson. Under the denomination of volcanic vapours, M. BREISLAK also includes those transient mephitic exhalations which issue from the neighbourhood of burning mountains, particularly during great eruptions, and destroy vegetation in the tracts over which they pass. Those which accompanied the eruption of Vesuvius, in 1794, were found to be composed of carbonic acid gas and azotic gas, with some mixture of sulfuric acid.

The incoherent ejections consist chiefly of smoke, earthy pulverulent matters, (improperly called *ashes*,) pumice, scorix, and other stony substances; all of which, separately, or blended, are discharged from the crater, in very various degrees of quantity, frequency, and rapidity. When the quantity is considerable, lightning is sometimes observed to dart across the accumulated cloud or pillar, which expands, and threatens to involve the horizon in darkness.—The currents of lava consist of fused, stony, or earthy substances, which are poured over the edges of the crater, or force their way through the sides of the mountain. When the eruption is very copious, it is generally accompanied or preceded by terrible subterraneous bellowings and earthquakes. The lava descends according to the laws of fluids, fills the hollows which it encounters in its way, and rises in them to the same level. Its surface hardens by contact with the air, and becomes covered with the more light and porous parts, called *scorie*; within which crust it continues to move at a rate proportioned to its fluidity, the inclination of the soil, and the impulse which it receives from the freshly erupted lava. When cooled, it forms a hard, sonorous, compact, and stony substance; for the most part, of a grey or blackish colour, and of a grain sometimes earthy and sometimes crystallized, according to the circumstances of fusion and refrigeration. It is also frequently characterized by the extraneous substances which are enveloped in its mass as in a paste, viz. augite, olivin, leucite, hornblend, mica, &c.

Notwithstanding the contrary opinion of *Dolomieu*, the present author contends for the production of stony lava by means of heat; and, in addition to his own repeated observations, he quotes in his support the accidental fusions which take place in lime-kilns, and the experiments of Sir James Hall, the late Mr. Gregory Watt, and M. de Drée. He likewise reminds us that *Dolomieu* made his observations, in 1794, in the district of the *Torre del Greco*; where the lava had already traversed the space of three miles, in five or six hours, when its temperature was in course considerably diminished, though even its superficial

superficial heat was still sufficient to volatilize refractory substances.

With regard to the origin of the crystalline substances which often form an important feature in lava, a very considerable diversity of opinion has prevailed among some of the most distinguished geologists; and, although we must not accompany M. BREISLAK in his series of interesting observations on this important point of discussion, we cannot forbear from remarking that he contrives to get rid of several difficulties by referring all such substances to four classes: namely, those on which the fire had produced no material impression, and which consequently retain their primitive state; those which have been formed in the bowels of the volcano, and thrown out by the force of the eruption; those which, fused by the fire, and mingled in the paste of the lava, have subsequently crystallized by cooling; and those which have been reproduced in the heat of the lava, when in its fluid state, by the intervention of combinations that have furnished new compounds.

Having successfully exposed the insufficiency of the common theory of volcanoes, which ascribes their phenomena to the combustion of beds of coal, and confuted the fanciful notions of *Patrin*, the author has recourse to the conflagration of reservoirs of petroleum, which he conceives to be alternately consumed and renewed, according to circumstances. Is such a theory, however, which was first suggested by *Bergman*, more satisfactory than others that have been proposed? To us it appears, we must frankly confess, to be encompassed with many and formidable difficulties, and to be altogether inadequate to explain the phenomena. The very existence of the alleged quantity of this aliment of volcanic fires, at immense depths, must for ever remain problematical: but, if both circumstances could be proved, it is scarcely conceivable that, after repeated and violent explosions, which seem to rend the earth, this liquid substance should quietly re-accumulate in the same situation. Besides, the conflagration of petroleum, at great depths below the surface of the earth, ought not to be accompanied by much more violence, or uproar, than that of extensive strata of coal; some of which are, at this moment, silently burning, without producing either a crater or a single particle of genuine lava.

The concluding chapter on *Basalt* is a powerful pleading in favour of the igneous origin of that substance, and will probably provoke a reply from the pen of Dr. Richardson, M. *Daubuisson*, or some other champion of the Neptunian school; for this M. SCIPIO BREISLAK has laid rude and heavy hands on the bulwarks of the Wernerian creed. He has, nevertheless, our
best

best wishes for health and long life ; not, indeed, that he may continue to administer the gun-powder department in Italy, but that he may mature and accomplish the extensive work which he has in contemplation, and of which the *earnest* on our table induces us to form flattering expectations. In truth, we have not often encountered such a quantity of valuable and diversified statement of fact, combined with acute argumentation, and pressed into such a moderate compass, as this Introduction to Geology has offered to our perusal. Our scientific readers will, we trust, accept of this consideration as a sincere apology for the disproportioned *brevity* of our account, and others admit it as the best excuse for our apparent *prolixity*. That we might keep within *prudential* bounds, we have not only suppressed much of the analytical portion of our intended report, but have exercised much self-denial in withholding many of the critical remarks which are naturally suggested by the author's positions and comments. Though we have had no opportunity of consulting the original text, we have reason to believe that the French translator has executed his task with ability : of this, at least, we are certain, that his language is distinct and perspicuous ; and, with the exception of his odd fondness for the epithet *grandiose*, it is untinged with either affectation or foreign idiom.

ART. IX. *Essais Historiques, &c.; i.e. Essays Historical and Critical respecting the French Marine, from 1661 to 1789.* By an old Officer of the Royal Navy. 8vo. pp. 306. London. 1813.

THE author of these observations introduces his subject by some remarks which are applicable to his individual situation. Belonging to a class of officers who have not taken part in the service of their country for many years, and who may now, from the lapse of time, be considered as never likely to appear again on the scene, he flatters himself that impartiality may justly be expected at his hands ; and of this he entertains the greater confidence from the circumstance of sending his work to the press in England, where are to be found so many living witnesses of the actions described by him in the latter part of his historical report. Conceiving a narrative, occasionally circumstantial, to be the best plan for making known the state and progress of the French marine at different periods, he has carried back his history to 1661, the time of the death of Cardinal *Mazarin*, and the epoch of increased attention to the navy. To a sketch of the principal exploits in the naval annals of his country, he has added a report of the progress of the

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sciences and commercial establishments which have contributed to the advancement of a knowledge of sea-affairs.

Since the year 1661, Europe has been exempt from civil wars, (till the French Revolution began,) and each state has been enabled to give free scope to the display of its resources. In point of population, France has always had nearly double that of the British dominions : but this advantage loses a great part of its efficacy, when we reflect on the magnitude of the armies which she was obliged to send out during the time of her exertions by sea. Of all the wars in the period in question, that of the American Revolution is the only one in which France was unincumbered with a simultaneous contest by land ; and from this and other causes the attention of the French nation has never been fully directed to naval affairs. While the army was a fashionable service among all ranks, the navy was embraced only by the younger brothers of family, or by gentlemen in limited circumstances, living in the maritime provinces. The coasts of France, also, are not so favourable to the training of seamen as those of her rival.

It is a matter of great difficulty to form a junction between squadrons equipped in the Mediterranean and in the Atlantic ; and the navigation of the shores of the Channel, the district best fitted for the formation of sailors, becomes almost wholly interrupted on the occurrence of a war with England. The tranquil waters of the Mediterranean are no school for navigation ; while Britain possesses a coast twice the length of that of France, and appears by her position intitled to hold the key of the northern seas.

In perusing the historical part of this work, our attention was naturally fixed on the memorable defeats of the French at La Hogue in 1692, at Brest in 1759, and in the West Indies on the 12th April 1782. We found these actions related with considerable impartiality, but without any of those expressions of encomium on the superiority of our seamanship, which occur immediately to the imagination of our countrymen as the decisive cause of our success. At La Hogue we were, in consequence of our junction with the Dutch, greatly superior in numbers ; an advantage which was indispensable to the attainment of any signal success in those days of deficient tactics. In the battle with *M. de Conflans*, we had likewise some superiority ; and in April 1782, this author represents that we had not only 36 vessels to 31, but the opportunity of acting against a portion of the French fleet under circumstances which prevented it from being effectually supported by the rest. In his various statements, however, he merely mentions the number of ships, without acknowledging the superiority of the French
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in point of men. He dwells with partiality on the exploits of *Duquesnes*, *Duguay Trouin*, *Jean Bart*, and *D'Orvilliers*; the first of whom began to act as an admiral, in the Mediterranean, in 1675. He was here placed in opposition to *De Ruyter*, whom Mr. Hume declares to be the only Admiral whose reputation has equaled that of the greatest General. By a singular fatality, it happened that *De Ruyter* was killed in action at the same time with one of the French admirals of far inferior note; and, after his fall, his fleet, consisting of a mixture of Dutch and Spaniards, took shelter in the harbour of Palermo, and formed the arch of a circle of which one of the extremities had the protection of a land battery. In this situation, not unlike that of the French at Aboukir, in 1798, the conduct of *Duquesnes* seems to have borne a considerable resemblance to that of our Nelson. Thinking that the enemy might be attacked with advantage, he directed his efforts against the Spanish part of the allied squadron; and, having the weather-gage, he managed so as to put them between two fires. The Spaniards cut their cables, but some of their vessels got aground; and the Dutch squadron, though its resistance was obstinate, was likewise exposed to great damage. In all, the loss of the allies consisted of 12 ships and 5000 men. Both the Admirals were killed; and this day (2d June 1675) was by far the most honourable in the naval annals of Louis XIV.

Throughout the long reign of Louis XV., our countrymen found means to maintain a decisive superiority over the French marine; and though our rivals made considerable progress in a knowledge of the theory of the art, they failed completely in its practical application. The war of 1741, successful as it was for France by land, exhibited little else than a series of losses and defeats by sea. The events of the war of 1756 were of too decisive a character to require description: but it is a matter of less notoriety that, in the interval of peace which formed the close of the reign of Louis XV., considerable pains were taken to redeem the past and to prepare France for a future contest on less unequal terms. His ministers bestowed great attention on the marine, and even obliged the officers to adopt the means of acquiring information in their profession. Large sums were also expended in the building of ships of war; so that, notwithstanding all his maritime defeats, Louis XV. left the navy in a better state than he had found it. A similar policy actuating the cabinet of his grandson, France found herself, in 1778, possessed of 90 sail of the line, and nearly 60,000 seamen. Still the remembrance of recent disasters was so strong in the minds of the French, that their first efforts were confined to attempts to succour the Americans; and it was not

till the Spaniards had taken an active part in the war, that France ventured to proceed on the plan of excluding the British from the Mediterranean. In this country, we are disposed to look back with considerable dissatisfaction on the conduct of our ministers and admirals in that æra of indecisive actions; and, recognizing in detached encounters the accustomed superiority of our seamen, we are naturally inclined to ascribe to bad management the want of corresponding success in general engagements. The feelings of this French writer are different. He takes little notice of the expedients by which the admirals of his nation contrived to avoid fighting, and to bring their fleets almost uninjured out of action; and he seems to consider that it would have been in the power both of the government and the commanders to have obtained signal success on several occasions. He does not appear to be sufficiently impressed with a conviction of the hereditary superiority of our countrymen in close action, nor with the value of the discovery of the method of obliging an enemy to fight by breaking his line.

Under the reign of Louis XVI., several works on navigation were published by *Romme* and others: but the principal discoveries were geographical, and were accomplished by the unfortunate *La Peyrouse*. The construction of the bason of Toulon was begun in 1774, and carried on with complete success. Improvements of less importance were made at Brest and Rochefort; and much instruction was afforded to the officers by the exercises and sham fights which were practised in 1776 and 1777. In 1786, Louis XVI. visited the harbour of Cherbourg, went on board the ships, and was present at their evolutions in the roads; a step which was calculated to give the naval service much additional consequence in the eyes of Frenchmen.

At the latter part of the present volume, a section is appropriated to the important object of rendering commerce subservient to the formation of seamen for the public service. The coasting trade has from its nature the effect of keeping seamen more completely on the alert than any other; and, possessing likewise the advantage of placing a considerable body of them at the almost immediate disposal of government, it ought, in the opinion of this writer, to be managed exclusively by native Frenchmen. In former days, the Dutch were in the habit of executing the chief part of this navigation, a circumstance which was productive of a serious privation to the French marine. The fisheries along the coast, and still more the cod-fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, are recommended by this officer as objects for the attention of the French government. The Levant trade is mentioned, but with less encomium,
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because the tranquil state of the winds and waves of the Mediterranean forms a bad preparation for navigating the ocean. The Baltic trade, being of a very different character, excites strongly the attention of the author : but, in his eagerness to recommend it to his countrymen, he seems to forget the inadequacy of the French capital to a participation in a branch of commerce which requires a long credit. The West-India trade is less in favour with him, from the comparative ease of tropical navigation, and the long continuance of the seamen in roadsteads ; and the East Indies are, from similar causes, still less an object of solicitude with him. With respect to foreign seamen, he is desirous of encouraging them to take service in France in a humble department : but he would neither receive them in the capacity of officers in the fleet, nor allow the crews of merchantmen to consist of less than two-thirds of native Frenchmen in time of peace.

In treating of the subject of discipline, this author complains that the French ministers seldom called commanding officers to account, except in a case of public clamour. This misplaced lenity had, in his opinion, an unfavourable effect on the younger officers ; who, from national character, are too much disposed to be lax in enforcing observance of the rules of seamanship, and in general with regard to whatever is not attended with some degree of *éclat*. Government, he says, ought to establish a greater equality of recompence between the two kinds of services ; considering that which goes forth to the public as already sufficiently rewarded, while that which is confined to a patient and almost unnoticed discharge of fatiguing duty ought to be deemed intitled to a more direct and liberal compensation than has hitherto been granted to it. In point of tactics, he mentions that, numerous as are the French publications on the practice of seamanship, none of them treat on the management of a fleet in action. The incidents of a battle are indeed so various, as to make it a matter of great difficulty to apply general rules : but this circumstance would only confer the greater utility on a work containing detailed accounts of former actions. The present author appears (p. 271.) to incline more to the plan of directing a broadside against the hull of a ship than is customary among Frenchmen ; and he dissuades from firing at the rigging when vessels are in close action, because it is very difficult to render a ship unmanageable, and the mischief received in the interval from the enemy's guns is likely to be of the most serious nature. He comments on the advantage of cutting off a portion of an enemy's fleet, so as to fight the remainder separately : but he does not enlarge on this plan to the degree which the frequency of its repetition by our officers,

during the last and the present war, appeared to require. In fact, he strictly confines his comments and illustrations to the operations preceding the French Revolution; and, like a staunch royalist, he declines to take any notice of transactions subsequent to 1789; the time at which, as he expresses it, 'the wrath of heaven was poured on his unfortunate land.' Some of his most judicious observations regard (p. 283) the relative situation of a mother-country and her colonies. Contemplating the ultimate separation of all Trans-atlantic possessions from the parent-state, he is very far from considering such a change in the light of a misfortune. England, he justly remarks, carried on a much more profitable trade with North America in 1790 than she had possessed in 1772, and was moreover exempt from the expence of governing that continent in peace and protecting it in war. Some colonial stations, however, such as Martinique, the Havannah, Malta, and the Isle of France, are admitted by this writer to be of importance as military positions for annoying the commerce of an enemy. These remarks are followed by an eulogy, somewhat in the superlative style, on the management of our East-India Company, and on the wisdom (as he is pleased to term it) of those arrangements which enable us to keep a population of 60 millions in a state of tranquil submission.

The labours of this officer of the old school are characterised by extensive information, both on professional subjects and on others of more general interest. Viewing his country with evident predilection, he prepares us to make certain deductions from the importance to which he calculates that her marine might arrive under an improved system; and, in this respect, he is the more apt to fall into error from an unacquaintance with the principles of political economy, and an inadequate conception of the wonderful advantage which is conferred by the superior industry and perseverance of the British. He is more correct in points on which ostensible appearances enable a writer to arrive at a conclusion without any intricate process of thought. Aware that a great part of the trade of France is and always will be carried on by land, he is not disposed to rate her maritime commerce at more than a third of that of England. In 1739 it was computed that three tenths of the trade of Europe passed through the medium of this country, while one tenth only went through the hands of the French. Accordingly, in the American war, we were able to keep up a navy of 100 or 120 sail of the line, while France could never man a greater number than 70; and beyond this amount the French ought not, in the opinion of this writer, to carry their views. Admitting also the undisputed superiority of the resources of Great Britain, he

says

says that France should enter into no naval contest without an assurance of the assistance of allies.

We conclude our notice of this interesting volume by a list of the estimates made of the navies of the different powers in 1789.

England, 120 ships of the line.	Holland, 30 ships of the line.
France, 80	Sweden, 23
Spain, 60	Denmark, 18
Russia, 40	

It is not a little gratifying to observe that the degree of increase in our naval preponderance, since 1789, greatly exceeds the relative acquisition of military strength on the part of France. In this year, 1813, our ships of the line are 250.

ART. X. *Des Bois, &c.; i. e.* On the Timber proper for the Service of Arsenals, Naval and Military; or an Explanation of the Laws, Regulations, and Instructions, concerning the Choice, Marking, and Felling of Trees fit for the Construction of Ships, Artillery-Carriages, &c.: with 40 coloured Plates representing Trees which supply the different Pieces for the Use of the Forest-Agents, of the Marine, Artillery, and Military Equipments; also of the Surveyors and Proprietors of Woods, and the Purveyors of the Arsenals of these different Services; by P. E. HERBIN DE HALLE, Author of the General and Particular Statistics of France, of a Treatise on the Squaring of Timber, &c. Approved by M. le Comte Bergon, Counsellor of State for Life, Director General of the Administration of Waters and Forests. 8vo. pp. 304. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe.

GEOGRAPHICAL readers have been made acquainted with M. HERBIN DE HALLE by his work on the "*Statistique générale et particulière de France*;" and the attention which Bonaparte gives or affects to give to the extension of his marine, and to the preservation of the public forests, appears to have stimulated the author to publish a separate volume on this specific department of Statistics. Conformably to a practice which in this country would appear remarkable, but which in France is not unusual, he inscribes his production to M. le Comte Bergon, Director of 'the department of waters and forests,' and obtains from him an answer expressive of approbation of the work. This answer forms a very convenient advertisement, and is made accordingly to figure in due style after the title-page.

M. DE H. begins by some introductory observations of considerable interest on the state of the forests in France. There, as in England, the nation has abundant reason to regret the im-

provident management of their ancestors. Regulations for the preservation of the forests were issued in France about a century and a half ago, but they were observed only in the royal domains: the woods belonging to individuals, and even to the clergy and public bodies, continuing to be managed on a very coarse system; and it was common for the inhabitants of a district to cut and carry wood in the forests, in the same way as they would fetch water from a river. Misconduct on the part of the ministers of marine, in former ages, contributed to exhaust the forests adjoining to the sea-side. The Revolution followed, and involved this portion of the national property in the disorder which was common in those days of anarchy. Private individuals had no scruple in appropriating to themselves a share of any thing which belonged to the community: public bodies alienated other parts for trifling considerations; and, on the commencement of the war in 1793, large quantities of timber were felled without any method or selection. It was not till 1803 that the French government appointed a special administration for the care of the forests, and subjected even private individuals to certain rules in the management of this description of property. Additional regulations were made in 1811; so that at present every precaution is taken for preventing waste with regard to woods, whether national or private.

These edicts, however, have come too late to preserve to the French government any large supply of timber in the neighbourhood of the coast; for in surveying the tracts adjoining to the sea, all the way from Holland to Bayonne, or from Perpignan to Nice, it would be difficult to find a single forest of considerable extent. The principal stores of French timber are therefore confined to the country extending northward from the province of Dauphiné, along the frontier; and to a second line running east of the former, which, going from north to south, comprehends part of the Netherlands and the departments on the Rhine. While, however, on the one hand, the Revolution had the effect of causing great havock in the stock of wood in the old territory of France, it has been the means, on the other, of obtaining additional stores; and of procuring, by an extension of the empire, and particularly by the command of the Rhine, more convenient outlets to the sea-coast. It was in fact to the difficulty of transporting these inland-forests that the present generation is indebted for their remaining in existence.

The work of M. HERBIN DE HALLE is divided into four parts. The first treats of the different kinds of wood that are employed for naval purposes, and enters minutely into a report
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of the size of trees, the various appearances of timber, its specific weight, the dimensions of different pieces, &c. — The second part comprizes the decrees and regulations of government concerning the timber marked by public authority as fit for ship-building. — The third contains, in like manner, the orders relating to wood that is fit for arsenals both naval and military; — and the fourth and last part consists of a vocabulary of maritime phrases, which it is necessary to understand in order to form a correct idea of the various applications of timber. The verbal illustrations are rendered clearer by the addition of plates, which are sufficiently homely in point of engraving, but are calculated to convey distinct impressions of the author's meaning. Thirty-three of them represent standing trees, and are useful in enabling the forest-agents to determine, from ocular observation, the kind of tree which is best fitted for naval purposes. The remaining plates represent timber in different stages of what is called its *conversion*, by which is meant the bringing it into a fit shape for ship-building.

It appears that the author is aware that a book on so peculiar, and, we may safely add, so dry a topic, cannot be interesting to any large proportion of readers. He accordingly confines his expectations to the different classes of persons who are engaged, more or less directly, in the timber-trade. The contractors for the French army and navy come under this description; as well as the proprietors of wood, and the surveyors who determine on the expediency of what may be called the 'local fellings of trees for public use.' To these he adds the different public officers connected with the care of the forests, and the purveying of timber for the national arsenals and dock-yards. All such persons are likely to find in this volume a more complete collection of interesting articles of information, than any that has hitherto been exhibited within so moderate a compass. It is not disfigured by fulsome adulation of the existing government; and, though it is without pretensions to any merit of a striking cast, it may be fairly considered as a clear and useful manual in a department of statistics which the prevalent ambition for the extension of maritime equipments has rendered particularly interesting.

Some domestic publications, on topics similar to those which have employed the pen of M. HERBIN DE HALLE, will be noticed in our subsequent numbers.

ART. XI. *Prolegomènes de l'Arithmétique de la Vie Humaine, &c. ; i. e. Prolegomena of the Arithmetic of Human Life, containing a General Classification of Talents, a Scale of the Age of Man, and a Formula for estimating all Geographical Positions: the whole on an uniform System.* By WILLIAM BUTTE, Doctor in Philosophy, Counsellor of the King of Bavaria, and Professor of Statistics and Political Economy in the University of Landshut. 8vo. pp. 216. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s.

THE work of this 'Doctor in philosophy' is one of the most singular that has for some time fallen into our hands. Its author begins by cautioning the reader against any hasty rejection of his theory on the ground of the general suspicion that is entertained of German metaphysics. 'I know,' he says, 'and I disapprove the extravagancies committed by many of my countrymen in the domain of philosophy, since the discoveries of the celebrated *Kant* have taught them to disregard the rules of an earlier age.' Notwithstanding this confession, M. BUTTE is of opinion that this revolution in the philosophical world will be eventually productive of advantage to science; and he believes that its irregularities will pass away, while the solid part will be retained and incorporated with the general stock of previous information. In these and some other preliminary observations, he speaks an intelligible language; but no sooner does he enter on a discussion of his particular system, than we find ourselves obliged to tread on mysterious ground. He treats of an 'order of the world,' which we must be cautious, above all things, of confounding with the 'order of nature.' It is, he says, a vulgar error to consider nature as the principle of life. 'Nature, (p. 2.) strictly speaking, is the opposite of that principle, and her true name should be *non-existence*.' After this hopeful preamble, the Bavarian sage proceeds to give a philosophic definition of 'the world;' and he observes, p. 19., 'the world is the combination of parts presenting the *primitive, continual, and universal* connection of finite and infinite.' — 'The finite part is nature; the infinite is destiny. The union of nature and destiny constitutes what we call life; and all life is a repetition more or less perfect of the system of the world.' — 'The business of the naturalist is to follow in his researches the order of nature, while the speculative man follows the order of destiny, and the philosopher combines both.'

After a variety of remarks, equally embarrassing to the plain man who is in search of solid reason and practical application, we meet (p. 39.) with a table which professes to do nothing less than to exhibit a 'classification of talents.' — 'In the region of talent,' says M. BUTTE, 'we distinguish the men of competent property, the rich, the poor, and the deranged.'

This catalogue seems to be tolerably comprehensive: but that of the 'region of genius' is more limited. The poor are excluded from this distinguished body, but their place is supplied by a notable class of people whom M. BUTTE calls the 'incomprehensibles.' These sublime personages form marked exceptions from this philosopher's ordinary rules. 'There is no harmony,' he says, 'in their composition, their productions are colossal, and every *incomprehensible* is a messenger extraordinary commissioned by fate.' No wonder that history should offer but a few individuals of this description! Plato, says the author, was one of them, and so was Charlemagne. 'Cæsar, the great and invincible Cæsar, would have been of this class, had not his countrymen barbarously cut him off. Alexander had no title to the name: but an individual remains,' (Bonaparte, we presume,) 'whose exploits will be recorded in history, and will afford a complete picture of the character of *incomprehensible*.' Is this a compliment, or not?

We pass from these wonderful calculations to a subject apparently of a plainer cast,—the scale of different ages in the life of man. Linné had divided human life into four periods, childhood, youth, manhood, and old age: but this division, however conformable to common opinion, is pronounced by M. BUTTE to be entirely false. 'No life,' he says, 'can consist of more than three periods, the first relating to the formation, the second to the perfection, and the third to the decline of the human being.' Linné, it seems, has moreover done wrong in taking seven years as a term to mark the distinction between one period of life and another. 'Nine years,' says the author, (p. 125.) 'would have been a more proper number. It is at the age of nine that a boy leaves off the play-things of infancy; at eighteen, he becomes a youth; and twenty-seven is the fittest age to enter on the married state.' If we are at a loss to perceive the force of the coincidence between facts and dates at these favourite epochs of this German philosopher, still less can we comprehend by what happy process he has discovered that the addition of another series of nine years brings us, at thirty-six, to the age of 'joviality;' and a farther addition of twice nine years to the enviable 'æra of dignity and wealth.' To females, M. BUTTE is less indulgent. He grants them only seven years instead of our nine, and gravely pronounces that the terrific epoch of old age begins, in the fairer half of the creation, at forty-nine; while in our case he has the kindness to give a respite till sixty-three.

This author is greatly out of humour with the imperfect manner in which geography has hitherto been taught. 'There
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has been,' he says, 'no proper exposition of the nature of different climates, it being common to take latitude only into the account. Now various other points, such as the elevation of the ground, its position relatively to prevailing winds, the vicinity of the sea, and the state of culture in the surrounding country, are all to be included in the consideration.' Such remarks as these might have a character of utility, were they not disfigured by ridiculous pedantry. 'Climatography,' says the author, (p. 140.) 'depends greatly on a previous knowledge of climatology, that is, a knowledge of the causes which affect the temperature of a country. In like manner, ethnography supposes a knowledge of ethnology, by which I mean a knowledge of the effects of climate on the character of a people.' After having classed these formidable names in due array, M. BUTTE proceeds to the still more puzzling title of '*Rélations cosmiques*,' by which he understands a correspondence between the variations in the system of the world and the variations in human life. In pursuance of this fanciful theory, he compares the years of human life with the degrees of latitude; and the latitude of eighty-one being, according to him, the limit of human existence, the age of eighty-one must form (p. 175.) a grand æra for the termination of life. In the same way, the years previous to the age of eighteen, and posterior to that of sixty-three, are pronounced to be as unprofitable on the score of enjoyment as the latitude below and above these significant numbers. Comfort in life, as in climate, is declared to be confined to the intervening series of numbers which constitute the happy medium in both.

Enough, we believe, has been adduced to afford the means of a just estimate of this singular work. 'Much of its obscurity,' says its author, 'will be removed by my *great map of the world*, which is about to be published forthwith.' This map is intended, we believe, to designate the merits of each particular country respecting climate; expressing these merits by a number formed from a combination of various considerations taken in addition to that of latitude. We are, however, very doubtful whether the appearance of the promised map will much facilitate the comprehension of this wonderful theory. The author observes, indeed, that 'the progress of a new science is necessarily slow. The arithmetic of human life has not yet reached its proper point, and is, I confess, at a considerable distance from perfection: but this distance is very far from discouraging me; — it has, on the other hand, the effect of *increasing my hopes*. I have written enough to shew my reader that I do not borrow the ideas of other men; and I leave it to another, more felicitous than I am, to carry this science to its highest point.'

It does not often happen to us to meet with a more unfortunate application of a respectable share of erudition than is exhibited in this work. We have heard much of the considerate character of the Germans as a nation : but M. BUTTE is calculated to bring strongly to recollection the *illuminés* of his country, and to revive the superstitious dreams which influenced the councils of the successor of Frederic II.

ART. XII. *Physiognomies Nationales, &c.*; i. e. National Physiognomy; or a Comparison of the Features of the Countenances of different Nations with their Manners and Character; with Twenty-five Engravings. 12mo. pp. 125. Paris. Imported by Dulau. Price 9s.

THIS little tract is addressed fully as much to the eye as to the thinking faculty, its chief attraction consisting in the figures which it displays of different nations: but, as affording a contrast with the labours of the pencil on other occasions, it deserves to be mentioned that the pictures here exhibited are abundantly plain. The English reader, who has been taught to consider his countrymen as forming decidedly the comeliest race of Europeans, will find his pride very little flattered by the specimen here introduced, though he may derive some comfort from a relative superiority to the Spaniard or the Dutchman. A Turk, of good profile, but of wonderful somnolency of eye, ushers in the curious assemblage; and he is followed, at some distance, by a Jew, a Copt, and a Malay, whose features are by no means calculated to make us in love with our species. Of the whole party, the best looking personages are a native of the island of Tchoka and the Florida Indian.

As to the qualities of the mind, the English are contrasted with the Germans, and are allowed a larger share of animation, energy, and sensibility; attended, however, with an inferior proportion of patience and perseverance:

‘The English forehead is expressive of thought; the German of erudition. The Englishman creates ideas; the German refines and arranges them. The vast memory of the latter is denoted by breadth of forehead, and marks him as the man to undertake works of research and reference.—The Dutchman has still less sensibility than the German: but his features announce a certain energy, approaching sometimes indeed to obstinacy, but characteristic of a man who goes straight forwards to his purpose, and is determined to surmount every obstacle by dint of patience.’

We were curious to discover the terms in which this Frenchman would speak of the features and mental qualities of his own countrymen. Modesty, whether national or individual, has
never

never been their character; and we have heard it gravely maintained among them that a traveller, wherever he goes, may recognize a Frenchman *par son air avantageux*. On the present occasion, little food is served up for national vanity; the compiler having omitted any outline of French physiognomy, on account, it is said, of the striking discrepancy of features in the different parts of the kingdom. This variety, however, is said to operate as a happy equilibrium, and to produce a combination of faculties which supply individuals 'equally fitted for the study of science, the practice of the fine arts, or the pursuits of war and commerce.' No notice is taken of the Poles, Swedes, or Danes, and very little of the Russians. — Agreeably to the rules of *Blumenbach*, the whole of mankind are distinguished into five varieties: the Caucasian, comprehending the Europeans and western Asiatics; the Mogul, under which are classed most other orientalists; the American; the Negro; and, finally, the Malay. — The work is composed of descriptions selected from voyages and travels; and, though not deficient on the score of perspicuity, it discovers little or no originality of reflection.

ART. XIII. *Galerie Mythologique*, &c.; i. e. The Gallery of Mythology, or Collection of Monuments, intended to assist the Study of Mythology, of the History of the Arts, of the Statues of Antiquity, and of the Allegorical Language of the Antients. With 190 Plates of Etchings, containing nearly 800 Monuments of Antiquity, of which more than 50 were never before published. By A. L. MILLIN, Member of the Institute, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3l. 13s. 6d.

OF all the Pantheons ever published, this may be regarded as the best; and those of our own country will be found imperfect and contemptible, when compared with the extensive exhibition of subjects illustrative of antient mythology which is here given by M. MILLIN. The surest method of explaining the literature of the antients is to have recourse to those monuments of the fine arts, which were actually executed when the fables of antiquity were in vogue; and when the designer and sculptor were employed to give a body to fashionable fictions, and to decorate by the sublimest efforts of their genius the temples of the gods. It is here observed that, 'though many works on mythology already exist, and though no part of literature has been the subject of more numerous or more diffuse treatises and elementary books, the authors of them have contented themselves with reporting mythological facts, without endeavouring

to point out their relation to the arts : they have indeed cited passages from the poets, but have rarely indicated the monuments to which references ought to have been made * ; and, if they have added plates to illustrate the works, they have confined themselves to the choice of some isolated attributes, or rather have given designs absolutely imaginary, which, instead of furnishing indications on the authority of which we may rest with confidence, in fact give rise to false ideas ; since these figures are often as badly executed as they are awkwardly conceived.' The work of M. MILLIN will be of great use in rectifying the errors to which many writers on antiquity have given rise, and in promoting a correct taste in our modern artists ; since, if it be not a finished whole, he has done much towards illustrating the allegorical language of the antients. He indeed tells us expressly that it must not be regarded as a complete treatise, but that it is particularly consecrated to the *history of the arts*, and above all to *archæologia*, or to the right understanding of what is here termed *figured antiquity* ; that is, the figures represented on the real works of antiquity. His object, he adds, is ' to present in methodical order a series of monuments calculated to place before the eye the principal mythological facts which have been represented by the arts, from their origin to the period of their decline ; and to deduce, from the varied details which these monuments offer, explanations relative to traditions more or less antient, or particulars respecting the different epochs of the arts among the people who have exercised them.'

For this purpose, he has brought together, and pleasingly exhibited in outline-engraving, nearly eight hundred subjects, taken from *statues, bas-reliefs, gems, medals, frescos, and paintings on vases*. With these are given short explanations, and all necessary references. At the end of the explanations in the first volume, is subjoined a discourse containing a history of the gods and allegorical divinities ; and in the second is a history of the heroes, or of the fabulous ages. We may truly say that much is here accomplished in a comparatively narrow space, and that a more useful book of the

* Some of these imaginary figures, such as those of the *Temple of the Muses*, by Bernard Picart, and those of the *Metamorphoses of Ovid*, by the same, or by Eisen, &c., are very well engraved : but their composition is as much at variance with true mythological tradition, as the style of the design is with the style of the antique. The figures also which accompany divers elementary works, as those of *Barville, Lyonnet, Tressan, Bell, the Letters to Emily*, &c., are altogether in opposition to the end for which they profess to be composed.'

kind was never published at so low a price. It is cheap even for the money at which it is afforded in England. It supplies a portable and commodious set of plates, in which artists may instantly find a sufficient number of examples for judging of the works of art, as far as they respect fidelity of attributes, costume, and usage.

Ashamed as we are of our English Pantheons, or works designed to illustrate ethnic antiquity, we recommend first a careful revision (for it is not free from errors,) and then a translation of this valuable work. The plates should be re-engraved from the originals.

ART. XIV. *Exposé de l'Exposé*, &c.; i. e. An Exposure of the Exposition of the French Empire, and of the financial Accounts published at Paris in February and March 1813. By Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOS. 4to. pp. 108. Printed at Reichenbach, (in Silesia,) August, 1813.

A YEAR ago, we took occasion to report at great length Sir F. D'IVERNOS' work intitled *Napoleon Administrateur et Financier*. Without pretending to warrant the general accuracy of its conclusions, we thought that much of its contents deserved attention in the critical situation of continental affairs; though we could not help regretting that Sir F. had not been more attentive to the forms of composition, to avoid the hazard of erroneous statements, and to escape a danger not less serious to an author, that of discouraging the perseverance of his readers. These objections apply with increased force to the tract before us, in which very little pains have been taken to render the subject easy or attractive. It is divided into six sections, treating respectively of, — 1. Decrease of the French Revenue. — 2. Increase of the Expenditure. — 3. Extraordinary Resource voted in March 1813. — 4. Conjectures on the Means remaining at the Disposal of the French Government. — 5. State of Manufactures in France. — 6. State of Trade.

Under the first head, the most striking points are the increase of smuggling caused by the late enormous additions to the rate of French customs. On the other hand, a great decrease is asserted in the branch of public revenue which was derived from the sale of wood from the forests; a decrease attributed by Bonaparte's finance-minister, the Duke of Gaeta, to the extended consumption of coals, but much more probably owing to the lavish anticipation of taxes and other parts of the national income: so that, though the consumption and the tax be equal, the sum coming to government is very different. Tobacco is in France an object of much more importance in a financial light than in this country: but, in this article also, Napoleon's arrange-

arrangements have failed (pp. 7, 8, 9, 10.) to produce the desired result ; — wishing to monopolize in his own hands the sale of tobacco, he has not been tardy in experiencing the common lot of commercial projectors.

In the second section, the most important point mentioned is the necessity of acknowledging a diminution (we may now say a total privation) of foreign tribute. The use made in the French budget of the enormous sums received from Prussia, Holland, Italy, &c. was to diminish, in the eyes of the French people, the expence of the military establishment. A charge of twenty-five millions sterling was thus cut down to eighteen ; and so reluctant is Bonaparte to admit an increase in this department of expenditure, that his budget for 1813 contains an estimate of only twenty-four millions, though the actual expence arising from the purchase of horses, the replenishing of empty magazines, and the clothing of new armies, must in all probability have required nearly twice the amount. — The “extraordinary resource” voted by the Senate in March last, and discussed in Sir FRANCIS’s third section, is the appropriation to government-use of the funds of towns and corporations : which took place by obliging the municipalities and other public bodies to exchange their property in land for portions of government-stock, on the calculation that the land, when brought to market by government, might be sold for a sum of nine or ten millions sterling. This is the course already pursued with regard to public property of other descriptions, viz. canal-shares, and land assigned to members of the Senate and Legion of Honour, or bequeathed in former ages to universities, colleges, and hospitals ; all on the calculation of grasping as much as possible in the hands of government, and of making the welfare of individuals dependant on the support of the new funded system. It is almost needless to add that, when once the money has passed into the imperial treasury, the municipalities and other public bodies need give themselves very little trouble in looking for an equivalent in stock or otherwise.

Embarrassed, however, as Bonaparte became by the total overthrow of his plans in Russia, Sir F. D’I. has sagacity enough to caution the allies against considering his resources as exhausted. By suspending the payment of pensions, clerical stipends, judicial salaries, military allowances, and perhaps the public dividends, Napoleon (he adds) may find means to appropriate a considerable sum. All this will be attended, indeed, with serious hazard to the stability of government : but the measures pursued during the year 1813 sufficiently shew that no prudential considerations will stop his career. After an explicit proviso to this effect, Sir FRANCIS returns to his

favourite theme of enforcing the declining state of the French affairs, and pursues that course of reasoning, in great detail, through the two sections which are allotted to the condition of their manufactures and commerce.

ART. XV. *La France Militaire, &c.*; i. e. France considered in a Military Capacity, under her Four Dynasties; being a Chronological Account of the Kings and Emperors who have commanded her Armies, as well as of the Mayors of the Palace, Seneschals, Constables, Ministers at War, Marshals, Generals in Chief, Grand Masters of Artillery, &c. &c. With an Historical Notice of the memorable Battles by Sea and Land which have been fought by the French and their Allies. By M. V——. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 765. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

THIS is a military dictionary, composed on the plan described in the title-page, and with fewer deviations from candour and impartiality than might have been expected in the present state of the French press. The names of military men who have commanded since the Revolution occupy, indeed, the larger part of the volumes: but a great space was unavoidably due to the surprising number and diversity of their exploits. Napoleon is mentioned (p. 17.) in a style of panegyric, but with more brevity than we anticipated. His reign is said, and very justly, to be ‘*unique* in its elements, its principles, and its results.’—On referring to the different actions in which fortune was unpropitious to the French arms, we find an acknowledgement of the defeats of Aboukir and Trafalgar*: but, with regard to Lord Howe’s action, the editor makes the woeful mistake of calling it a victory on the French side; and the battle of Alexandria is termed very coolly ‘*une affaire*, in which the English General Abercrombie and the French General Lanusse, respectively fell.’ With the same happy turn of representing things on the favourable side, we find the battles of Eylau and Aspern described as victories on the part of the French: but these instances surprise us the less, because in each Napoleon commanded in person. The most remarkable feature in this publication is a total silence respecting the battles in Spain; a silence for which, as the French had been in general

* In the war which terminated in 1783, Admiral Keppel is said to have been beaten, off Ushant, by the Comte d’Orvilliers: but *per contra*, Admiral Suffrein is acknowledged to have been defeated, off Madras, in 1782, by Sir Edward Hughes; and Admiral Rodney is allowed to have *completely beaten* the Comte de Grasse, off Dominica, in that year.

- successful to the date comprehended in this publication, we are at a loss to account, otherwise than by the general unpopularity of the war. The usurpation of Spain may be said to form the decisive æra in Napoleon's career. It unmasked his character to all Europe, and was the cause of leading his forces into enterprises beyond the compass of their means.

The present compilation is useful chiefly to military men, or to persons who are interested in military researches: to whom it will be found convenient, as well from its comprehensive nature as from the clearness and, in most cases, the accuracy of its notices.

ART. XVI. *La France Legislative, &c.; i.e.* France in her Legislative Capacity, or the Legislators, Ministers, Judges, and Administrators of France, under the Four Dynasties; being a Chronological Record of the Regents, Prime Ministers, Ministers, and Secretaries and Counsellors of State, Masters of Requests and Auditors, *Præmiers*, Presidents, Advocates-General, Procurators-General, the Great Council, Parliament, Chamber of Accounts and Courts of Aid, High Court, Court of Cassation, Imperial Courts, Intendants of Provinces and Generalities, Prefects and Sub-Prefects of Departments, *Prévôts* of Paris, *Prévôts de Marchands*, Mayors of Paris, Lieutenants-General and Prefects of Police, &c. &c. from the Institution of those Dignities, Charges, or Functions, to the Year 1813. With a Chronological History of the States-General and Legislative Assemblies, from the Origin of the Monarchy to the present Day; and a Nomenclature of the Deputies, Legislators, and Senators, who have belonged to these Assemblies. By M. V——. 12mo. 4 Vols. pp. 1257. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s.

WE have here a sequel to the work which we have noticed in the preceding article. Its contents are so fully explained in the long title-page, that we need only add that it is intended for the use of public functionaries, and forms a desirable book of reference to those whose official situation leads them to consult it. Apparently, it is composed with considerable care; and it contains occasionally observations and anecdotes of a more interesting cast than we are led to expect in a compilement of this description. On turning to the department of police, we find an amusing account of the *Marquis d'Argenson*, who succeeded to the place of lieutenant-general of the Paris police in 1697. This personage had, it seems, a very forbidding appearance, but knew well how to assume a courteous deportment. The art of *espionage* was carried by him to a high point of perfection, and rendered him the master of a number of family-secrets: but he made use of his information

with so much prudence, that he created no unnecessary disquietude, and kept those mysteries sacredly in his own breast ; unless the welfare of the state, or that of individuals, required a particular application of his knowledge. He perfectly knew how to manage men of rank, without either fearing or offending them.

To each of the volumes is added a table of contents, recapitulating the portion of the designations in the title-page which are contained in it. The third volume, for example, gives the history of the provincial parliaments, and of the chambers of accounts, which were courts established for the purpose of examining and judging the reports of those who had the management of any of the public funds. It was part of their province to receive the quit-rents of the lands and lordships belonging to the crown : they registered letters of nobility, naturalization, legitimacy, donations, and appropriations : they were charged also with the registration of the letters-patent, of the erection of principalities, duchies, marquisesates, and peerages in general.—The last volume is confined to lists of a more modern date, commencing with a chronological account of the States-General ; and being filled with the names of individuals in the different legislative assemblies, which, under the title of convention, councils, senate, and tribunate, have represented, or professed to represent, the French people during the last twenty-five years.

ART. XVII. *Nouveau Elémens de Littérature, &c.* ; i. e. New Elements of Literature ; or Analysis of the different Kinds of Literary Composition, and of the best Classical Works, antient and modern, French and foreign : containing Extracts or Translations of the most esteemed Authors. Partly translated from the German Work of *Eschenburg*. By M. BRETON. Small 12mo. 6 Vols. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s. sewed.

ONE fruit the French are deriving from their baffled inroads on Germany ; they have acquired a difficult language, and have brought home in their knapsacks some good books to translate. German works, however, are commonly voluminous and ponderous, and fit only to carry on the shoulder ; at Paris, therefore, it is necessary to pare them into dimensions for the pocket. This operation has been effected on the present occasion ; and the half-dozen heavy octavoes of M. *Eschenburg*, intitled *Beispiel-Sammlung zur Theorie der schönen Wissenschaften*, are here reduced into as many small duodecimoes, under the denomination of *Elements of Literature*.

M. Eschenburg's plan was to treat of all works of literary art under their respective names; of the fable, of the tale, of the epigram, of the idyl, of the ode, of the epopea; and, after having given their respective theories, according to the best critics, (such as *Sulzer*,) to subjoin chosen specimens of each, borrowed from German authors and translators. His text appears in this publication with little abridgment, and with some additions, chiefly derived from the *Course of Literature* by *Labarpe*: it is by omitting the specimens, and substituting shorter examples, in smaller number, and derived from the French classics, that the reduction of both is accomplished. In its present form, the work constitutes a grammar of rhetoric, or introduction to the theory of criticism, somewhat analogous to Blair's Lectures: but, as it comprehends many topics which our teachers overlook, and as the caduceus of *Hermes* cannot be made too accessible or too *handy*, we shall give a detailed analysis.

The Introduction recommends the study of foreign literature, as tending to form a critical taste, and to give a command of allusions and ideas not yet trivial. Something is said, and very ill said, about the history of oratory; in the course of which the author names, as the best English pulpit-orators, Tillotson and Littleton. The former has certainly long held a distinguished rank among us: yet his eloquence, to be admired, requires the docility of a pious ear, which is dutifully content with the plain dull monotony of a prose that is nowhere enlivened by the pictures of fancy or the emotions of feeling. As for Littleton, he made a dictionary: but the name seems here to be a misprint, perhaps for Hall, perhaps for Jeremy Taylor, perhaps for Barrow, and perhaps for South.

Chapter I. treats of the *Apologue*, or *Æsopian fable*. The word *fable* has so many senses, that it is not a convenient term of art. A short history of fable-writing is prefixed, and mentions, as the earliest fable, that which is related in the ninth chapter of the book of Judges. Something is also said of Locman, the supposed predecessor of *Æsop*. It has lately been taken for granted, on Quintilian's authority, that *Æsop* is a fictitious name adopted by Hesiod; and that it was Hesiod who translated from some oriental language the first Greek fables. Socrates is stated to have made a new edition or poetic version of *Æsop*. Some Greek fables of Aphitonius, and of Gabrias, have also descended to us. M. BRETON corrects Tyrwhitt, who places this Gabrias, a grammarian of the fourth century, before Jesus Christ.

The Latin fabulists then pass in review, viz. Phædrus, and Avienus. Curious particulars are given of the *Codex Perottinus*, rediscovered at Naples in the year 1808, and containing thirty-

two new or rather inedited fables, probably of Phædrus, perhaps of Avienus.

Among the modern fabulists are distinguished Professor *John Frederick Christ*, and *Desbillons*, who both wrote in Latin. The Italians especially boast of *Verdinotti*, the model of *Lafontaine*; and of *Pignotti*, his imitator. The following Italian fable of *Baldi* is given for its singularity: "Sicily addressed Neptune, praying to be rejoined with Italy: you are foolish, answered the god, if you do not know how much better it is to be a small head than a great foot."—The allusion to the form of Italy, which resembles a boot, gives an air of conceit to the turn of the moral.

In the number of French fabulists are enumerated *Lafontaine*, *Lamotte*, and *Florian*; and their best pieces are severally indicated:—among the English fabulists, Gay and Moore;—and among the Germans, *Hagedorn*, *Lessing*, *Gellert*, and *Pfeffel*. The best critical work on the theory of fable-writing is the dissertation prefixed by *Lessing* to the volume of his original fables in prose. On this topic, we have already dilated in the Appendix to our lxth Vol. p. 505. to 510. Dryden's *Hind and Panther* is a finely versified fable, in the concatenated manner of *Pilpay*.

The second chapter, or section, treats of the Tale. Here again, as in the first chapter, *Lafontaine* is the hero of the critic, the laureat of his admiration. Ovid's *Metamorphoses* are ingeniously discussed as a collection of Tales; and the more successful narrations are separately indicated, and compared with modern similar efforts. Niobe is preferred to all the other stories for dignity and pathos. *Voltaire* is placed below *Lafontaine*, as a writer of metrical tales, but unjustly, since he has produced as many good compositions of this kind. *Wieland* stands at the head of this department of art, but is most unaccountably passed over by M. BRETON. Prior is censured for his anachronisms, his vulgarity, and his diffuseness; and Swift's *Baucis and Philemon* is blamed for a breach of costume in retaining the antient names, when the story was intended to become a Christian legend. Tasso's episode of the Bee, in the *Aminta*, is cited as a model of a well-told tale.

Chapter III. treats of Pastorals; and the book of *Ruth* is specified as the first good eclogue in literary history. Theocritus is duly praised for the fidelity of his pictures. The difficulty of writing idyls consists in giving interest to such ordinary objects and transactions as they include. Virgil, by ennobling his shepherds, renders it improbable that they should take any concern in the trifling pursuits which occupy them:—Apollo keeping sheep is ill employed. The best of the Italian pastorals are

are not here criticized; yet *Sannazaro*, *Tasso*, and *Guarini*, deserved commentary: while to *Fontenelle*, to Madame *Desboulieures*, and to still feebler French idyllists, some attention is patriotically shewn.

Cleghorn, in his description of Minorca, describes the *glassadores* of that island as retaining the habits of musical competition which Theocritus ascribes to the Sicilian shepherds. No doubt, models existed in nature for the first pictures of such scenes: but still the propriety of chusing, for delineation, objects which are not engaging, nor important, remains to be proved. In our judgment, bucolic manners are not to be considered as a separate branch of art, any more than the manners of fishermen or of artisans. The laws, by which a separate dialogue or a single scene can be rendered interesting, are the true rules which the maker of pastorals should observe, in common with every other dramatist. A lively incident, as in the *Daphnis* of Theocritus, or an important catastrophe, must be on the point of decision. Mere pictures of manners do not excite much curiosity; it is the form which human emotions and passions assume in the untutored countryman, that bestows all the sympathy. The frame, whether oaken or gilded, is matter of indifference: but the adventure portrayed must be such as men can strongly feel. *The Brothers* of Wordsworth, though full of superfluity, and protracted after the discovery, is a well-planned pastoral.

Some mention is made of the German bucolic poets, but not enough. *Gesner* paints Arcadian scenery, and *Voss* describes the autochthonous manners of modern middle life: but both too frequently neglect the trivial observation, that there should never be "Much Ado About Nothing." Goethe's "*Herman and Dorothea*" is an epic pastoral in which the manners are well painted.

Chapter IV. examines the Epigram, and other short forms of poetry, including the sonnet. A history of the Greek anthology is given; and many elegant little poems are extracted from it in the words of the best French translators. Martial, and the Latin epigrammatists, then pass in review; and some translations are given from Catullus and Ausonius. Next follow the French epigrammatists; and here we expected a more splendid quiver of prize-darts than we have found. The ensuing sonnet of *Scarron* is one of the selected poems, and has much comic merit. Warburton admired it.

"*Superbes monumens de l'orgueil des humains,
Pyramides, tombeaux, dont la vaste structure
A témoigné que l'art, par l'adresse des mains
Et l'assidu travail, peut vaincre la nature.*"

*Vieux palais ruinés, chefs-d'œuvre des Romains,
Et les derniers efforts de leur architecture,
Coïssée, où souvent ces peuples inhumains
De s'entr'assassiner se donnaient tablature.*

*Par l'injure des temps vous êtes abolis,
Ou, du moins, la plupart vous êtes démolis,
Il n'est point de ciment que le temps ne dissoute.*

*Si vos marbres si durs ont sentis son pouvoir,
Dois-je trouver mauvais que mon vieux pourpoint noir,
Qui m'a duré deux ans, soit percé par le coude."*

A dissertation on mottoes occurs in this section. One of the most whimsical was assumed by Mary Stuart, on the death of her first husband Francis II. : she took for her device a liquorice plant, and wrote under it, "*Dulce meum terra tegit.*" — The French definition of a *lai*, or lay, is a song having only two rhimes, 'as in the following instance :

*" Sur l'appui du monde
Que faut-il qu'on fonde
D'espoir ?
Cette mer profonde
En débris féconde
Fait voir,
Calme au matin l'onde ;
Et l'orage y gronde
Le soir."*

1. Rash mortals, why
On aught rely
Below ?
2. Wrecks you may spy
On billows high,
Or low.

3. This cloudless sky
Shall storms on high
Ere night o'erflow.

Of the fifth chapter, the subject is Didactic Poetry. Hesiod's *Theogony* is ranked in this class ; and some imitations of the great poem of Milton are noticed and censured. Empedocles is said to have written a poem in which he taught metempsychosis ; and probably that beautiful part of the fifteenth book of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, in which he expounds the Pythagorean philosophy, is a close imitation of the Greek composition of Empedocles. Aratus wrote verses on astronomy, in Greek, which Cicero translated, but neglected to preserve. Grotius spent many idle hours in trying to replace this loss.

Comments on the gnomologists, or versifiers of short moral apophthegms, are given at some length in an useful subdivision of this chapter. Distichs, and golden sentences, well deserve to be transplanted from the theatre, and the satire, into separate collections of *maxims*. Moral sentiments are lasting treasures
of

of the memory, which grow in value every time that they are compared with experience. How often the copy, which a boy writes out unthinkingly at school, supplies to him in after-life a sage remark, which his own observation has ratified, which his young family admire as worthy of the moralizing gravity of age, and which they will hand down with renewed confidence to a remoter posterity!

Theognis is praised, and Oppian is criticized. The Latin poets in this line, such as Publius Syrus, Dionysius Cato, the author of the *Georgics*, Horace, Columella, and others, pass in brisk review: of Manilius, also, of Grattius Faliscus, and of Lucretius, some notice is taken: but this whole section, though it displays reading, and is written with taste, leaves an impression of regret at its brevity. Much more argument might have been expended with advantage on the didactic poems of the antients, which are numerous and beautiful: but modern criticism affects to disdain a line of art which reminds exertion of being graceful, and poetry of being useful.

Volume II. continues this fifth chapter. The modern didactic poets move in quick procession; and first the Latinists. *Polignac's Anti-Lucretius* is praised with becoming piety; and *Vida's Silk Worm, Chess, and Poetic Art*, with becoming taste. *Rapin's "Gardens"* is a dull poem, overrun with Pagan mythology, and filled with leaden statues among yew hedges; and, in *Vanier's Prædium rusticum*, the elegance of the Latinity does not suffice to conceal the dryness of the details. *Dufresnoy* wrote a poem *De Arte graphicâ*, and *Marsy* composed another *De Picturâ*: both have acquired celebrity, and have been translated into various vernacular languages. The present author prefers the poem of the Abbé *Marsy*, of which *Lemierre* executed an admired French version.

When any of the arts of life rise in social importance, and become sources of income to gentlemen, they require to be liberalized; and this is especially the service which the didactic poet can render. The potter and the cotton-spinner have derived, from the descriptive lines of Dr. Darwin, an accession of public estimation. So did the priest, from a poem of *Louis Racine* intitled *La Religion*: which should be translated by some of our female poets, who are so laudably anxious to twine the flowers of verse round the palms of Christianity. — His other poem, *La Grace*, is not less meritoriously impressive: it breathes in every Alexandrine an evangelical persuasion; and, if too long for the *perseverance*, it is too short for the *edification* of the reader. It exhibits an art which may be considered as the greatest and most difficult victory of polished language over intractable topics; that of expressing, in smooth and

and melodious rhyme, the abstract propositions of dogmatism, and the mystical code of faith. It is at once the triumph of orthodoxy and versification; — a Christian chapel erected on Parnassus, — an angel in the garment of a muse.

Pope and *Voltaire* are introduced into this didactic groupe; and the less known author of a poem intitled *La Déclamation Théâtrale*, by name *Dorat*. This is a French *Rosciad*, of which the celebrity has vanished with the personages: but, as every generation has to make these poems over again, they should be consulted for happy transferable passages. — *Delille* is justly placed at the head of the French didactic poets; and his works, which are familiar in this country, have transplanted into a foreign soil many of our native flowers.

The sixth chapter treats of Descriptive Poetry: which scarcely deserves to become a separate department of art, or a peculiar ground of classification. All poetry must abound with descriptions; and if the English poet of *The Seasons*, or the French poet of *The Months*, seems to make description his only end and aim, this is a consequence of the topic on which he undertakes to lecture, and it is as a branch of his didactic duty that he dwells perpetually on the description of natural phænomena. *Roucher*, *Lambert*, and *Delille*, might all have been reviewed under the preceding subdivision.

Haller, *Kleist*, and *Zachariah*, are named among the best descriptive poets of the Germans; Young, Akenside, Armstrong, Somerville, Grainger, Thomson, and Goldsmith, among the English. We demur to this proposition; Thomson and Goldsmith may excel in description, but Akenside certainly does not.

With great critical propriety, the Epistle is treated separately, as a peculiar and interesting form not only for didactic poems, but for works of art of that higher kind which delineate human emotions and passions. Horace wrote epistles chiefly didactic, of which the most celebrated is that which was addressed to the Pisos on the theory of poetic (or dramatic) art. Ovid has also left epistles, which are mostly elegiac or tragic letters ascribed to heroes of celebrity: such poems are technically called *Heroids*. Among French epistles, the ninth satire of *Boileau* is here praised as the best: it is an imitation of Horace "to his Book." *J. B. Rousseau*, *Dorat*, *Bonneval*, *Gresset*, *Bernis*, and especially *Voltaire*, have supplied several excellent epistles: but, on the whole, *Chaulieu*, who devoted himself exclusively to this line of composition, has surpassed other French writers in the grace and ease of his epistles, which breathe an Epicurean philosophy. Among the English writers of epistles, M. BRETON distinguishes Pope; among the Italians, *Algarotti* and *Frugoni*;

Frugoni; and among the Germans, we know not why, *Ua*, *Gleim*, and *Goethe*. Perhaps the best familiar epistle in the English language is Goldsmith's *Haunch of Venison*; and it is the more surprising that M. BRETON has omitted to notice this production, because it is a close imitation of the third satire of *Boileau*, which again copies the eighth of the second book of *Horace*. Pope's *Eloisa to Abelard* is the best Heroid, not only in our own but in any language.

The eighth chapter treats of Satire; and here we are first introduced to Archilochus and Hipponax. Cicero calls the wall-bills, which were pasted up at Rome to libel Cæsar, *Archilochian edicts*. According to tradition, Lucilius was the first Roman satirist. Horace, Juvenal, and Persius remain to us, and enjoy a lasting admiration: but Horace is the most excellent of the three; since his pictures of manners have more discrimination, more truth of nature, and more individuality, and his ethic judgments are milder and more hitting. In writing satire, the difficulty does not consist in being abusive: Oldham could out-blackguard Pope: but it consists in exciting in a due degree the appropriate antipathy, in detecting and exposing the morbid part which requires the probe, not in lancing it harshly. Satire should be a branch of moral criticism, not of oratorical invective. It is not a *Philippic* but a *character*, which the satirist has to draw: he is not to make Demosthenes, but Theophrastus, his model. He may find out and strike the heel of Achilles, but not with the weapon of an assassin.

French satirists next succeed: *Regnier* is highly praised, and *Boileau* too much. *Gilbert* is named, who wrote a satire called *Le dix-huitième Siècle*, which contains a few teasing couplets about men not yet quite forgotten at Paris. *Palissot*, author of a French Dunciad, had more vituperative force: but he cuts too frequently with the knife of the butcher, instead of the lancet of the anatomist. *Voltaire* has not given the title of satires to any of his poems: yet they abound with passages of a satirical and original turn.

The Italian satirists are next attentively analyzed. Of *Ariosto's* satires, the best is the seventh, addressed to his friend *Pistofilo*. *Alamanni*, *Salvator Rosa*, *Menzini*, and *Gozzi*, have attempted this walk with inferior success.

Of our countrymen, are enumerated *Donne*, *Wilmot*, *Pope*, *Swift*, *Young*, *Churchill*, and *Johnson*. We have forgotten *Wilmot*, but we still remember *Hall*.

Among the German satirists we here read of *Rachel*, who was born in 1618 and died in 1669, rector of the high school at Schleswig. In the satire on Education, he lifts up a warning voice

voice against the vices of schools. *Canitz* translated badly some satires of Horace, of Juvenal, and of *Boileau*. He was born at Berlin in 1654, and died in 1699. *The dying Miser* is in this line his best original poem. *Hagedorn* produced some feeble imitations of Horace, but aims at a candour which is incompatible with the censorial employment, and his box on the ear is mistaken for a pat on the cheek. *Rabener*, an over-rated author, was born in 1714, and died at Dresden in 1772, where he exercised a financial employment, which favoured the approach of flatterers. His tedious satires are chiefly written in prose, and contain memorials of the past rusticity of German manners, which he may have contributed to refine: but his works deserve mention rather than perusal. His *Secret History of Swift's Last Will* may attract, and disappoint, the curiosity of Englishmen.

The ninth chapter is allotted to Elegy; a Greek word signifying complaint. The first elegies were short lamentations chaunted at funerals; *hearse-songs*, as our Saxon ancestors named them. Horace says that the grammarians could not find out who invented elegy. Tyrtæus, Sappho, Simonides, Callimachus, Mimnermus, and Hermesianax, are writers of elegies celebrated among the Greeks: even Plato and Aristotle made attempts in this form of composition. It was not always a disinterested tribute; and *the Tears of Simonides* became a proverbial expression for venal funereal eulogy.

Among the Latin elegiac poets, M. BRETON agrees with Quintilian in preferring Tibullus: but probably we should rank Ovid higher. The disorder of Tibullus is more offensive to good taste than the exuberance of Ovid; and he has also a narrow range of idea, while Ovid can feel other passions as well as love. More exclusively voluptuous than Ovid, perhaps, but not more intently, during the paroxysm, Tibullus is always devouring the luscious, instead of tasting every delicacy of the feast: his mess surfeits, but that of Ovid does not pall on the appetite. As in sentiment so in style, Tibullus is less various, and reiterates the same forms of line more frequently than Ovid.

The French elegiac poets follow. *Lafontaine's* Lamentation for Orontes (viz. *Fouquet*, who was sent to the Bastille, and supposed to have died there in an iron mask; see our xxiid Vol. p. 558.) is deservedly praised for generosity of sentiment and poetry of language. Individual poems of *Bernard*, of *Parny*, of *Gresset*, and of *Voltaire*, are also specified, which deserve to rank high in this form of composition.

As the triumph of English elegy, Gray's *Country Church-yard* is justly cited: but the worst part of it, the concluding

cluding epitaph, is alone extracted. Of *Klopstock* and *Hoelty*, some good elegies are indicated.

Lyric Poetry occupies the tenth chapter. The song of triumph on crossing the Red Sea (*Exodus*, c. xv.) is quoted as the first effort of lyric song; and certain psalms and oracles of the Jewish prophets are justly placed among its most beautiful trophies.

"In order to form an idea what the ode ought to be," (says *La-harpe*, in his *Course of Literature*, Vol. ix.) "let us imagine a virtuous enthusiast, who comes running with his lyre in his hand, at the moment of sedition, to calm the public mind; at the moment of a calamity, to revive the hope and courage of the people; at the moment of a victory, to celebrate the triumph, or of a solemnity, to consecrate its awefulness, or of public games to excite emulation or award preference; and the words which he would so utter tend to form an ode; it is the voice of agitated genius impressed by a particular occurrence."

Linus, Orpheus, and Muszeus, are named among the early lyric poets: but it is doubtful whether we possess any of their fragments. Anacreon is the most familiar, and Pindar the most heroic, of the Greek ode-writers who remain to us. Pindar is over-praised by M. BRETON. He is not a good poet, or at least not a maker of good poems. He shoots his arrow, indeed,

"High as a human arm may hope
To hurl the glittering shaft of praise,"

but never at the mark: the bow has force, but the archer wants skill. To pretend to aim at a given object, and always to urge the dart in a different direction, exhibits a cross-eyed effort which criticism should blush to praise. Probably, Pindar began his career as a hymn-writer; and, having composed and gotten by heart certain choral songs adapted for the usual solemnities of the more popular temples, he and his choir were also invited to sing at the triumphal festivals of the wrestlers. The victor might chuse the hymn of his favourite god, and bespeak any one of Pindar's stock-songs: but there was no time to alter the words, the tune, or the dance; the ode must be performed without delay, and could only be new-capped with an introductory line or two about the patron of the feast; and chance preserves to us no matter which of these versatile rhythmical superscriptions. Many chorusses of the Greek plays might easily be accommodated to a boxer's dinner; and this was no doubt the usual resource of the orchestra which was hired for the occasion.

Of the Latin lyric poets, Horace is unquestionably the first. He is least successful when he imitates Pindar; and most felicitous

felicitous when he listens to his own good sense, and talks about his topic with his inherent resources. The Odes of Horace are frequently divided in the wrong place. Thus, in the first book, *Parcus decorum cultor*, and the following, *O divus gratum*, seem originally to have formed a single ode to Fortune; for we cannot discover who is the *Divus* of the second ode, without the *Fortuna* in the penultimate line of the preceding one. So again in the third book; to the second ode, which treats of fortitude, belong the first four stanzas of the third ode. With *Gratum elocuta consiliantibus*, begins a totally different subject; — a dissuasion of Augustus from transferring the metropolis into the east.

French ode-writers are next marshalled; and here we think that *Ronsard* is undervalued, and *Malherbe* overvalued. *Boileau*, and *Baptiste Rousseau*, are praised with patriotic eagerness, but with a secret feeling that the clear though cold correctness of their classical forms possesses no animation; and that they have made transparent statues of ice after the antique. *Lebrun* has a much higher literary rank: but the present author reproaches the editor of his posthumous works with having swelled the collection by a multiplicity of poems of secondary merit, which *Lebrun* had indeed written and given among his friends, but which he did not intend for posterity. Nothing is so destructive of poetic reputation as quantity, since an author is ranked at the average value of his versified works, and every moderate piece is so much alloy, which detracts from the worth of the ore. A man will read six select sonnets, and perhaps learn them by heart: but he will not read sixty sonnets because he may find among them six that are good. The leaves of the poet, like those of the sibyl, only acquire a selling value by burning two thirds; and the sieve of the critical anthologist will ultimately preserve of voluminous poets only the flour of their dust. Condensed, and crystallized, the diamond lasts for ever: but, in the form of a cubic acre of gas, it is dissipated in the air unperceived.

Of the Italian ode-writers, *Chiabrera*, *Menzini*, and *Mattei*, are cited with applause. Among the English ode-writers, *Cowley* is numbered, not one of whose odes remains in vogue; and *Collins* is omitted, many of whose odes are deservedly retained in our anthologies, and recited in our academies. Among the German ode-writers, *Uz* and *Kleist* are named, and *Klopstock* is deservedly and loudly praised as at the head of lyric art.

An appendix to this chapter treats separately of Social Songs.

The earliest French songs are those of William Count of Poitou, composed in the provençal dialect about the eleventh century.

century. *Thibault*, Count of Champagne, turned many of these songs into the *langue d'oïl*, or northern French, about the thirteenth century, and made others which he addressed to Saint Louis and to Queen Blanche. The best of these, with the orthography a little modernized, is thus transcribed by the present author: many imitations of it may be traced in early European literature; yet it has not a cast of character so ancient as its presumed date:

“ *Las ! si j'avois pouvoir d'oublier,
Sa beauté, son bien dire,
Et son tant doun, tant doun regarder,
Finiroit mon martyre.
Mais las ! mon cœur je n'en puis ôter !
Grand affolage
M'est d'espérer,
Mais tel servage
Donne courage
A tout endurer.
Et puis comment, comment oublier
Sa beauté, son bien dire,
Et son tant doun, tant doun regarder !
Mieux aime mon martyre.*”

A good drinking song of *Panard* is given, intitled *L'orage*; which we will also transcribe. The reader should recollect that it was written in a land of vineyards.

“ *De quel bruit effrayant retentissent les airs !
Les vents, échappés de leurs fers,
Se font une terrible guerre !
Quels siffemens, quelles fureurs !
La grêle, les éclairs, les éclats du tonnerre,
Vont détruire en un jour tout l'espoir des buveurs.
O Jupiter ! calmez votre colère :
Bacchus, pour vous fléchir, se joint à nos accens ;
Souvenez-vous, grand dieu, que vous êtes son père,
Et que nous sommes ses enfans.*”

A similar effect is produced by the English song, *Says Chiron one day to his pupil Achilles*, where the expression of the words and music, at first so solemn, dissolves into hearty gaiety.

In the twelfth chapter, the subject ascends at once from the song to the Epic Poem: but a more natural arrangement would have been to have treated successively of all narrative poems, and to have passed from the apologue and the tale to the epopea. The epopea is defined to be the recital of an heroic, interesting, and probable action: a tale recites only an incident; and an epopea records an entire event. In *Macbeth*, Shakspeare has furnished matter for an epopea, and the drama might easily have assumed that form. The *Iliad*, the *Odyssey*, and the *Æneid*,
are

are characterized as usual. It is time to acknowledge that the *Jerusalem Delivered* surpasses in plan any epic poem of antiquity: the action, — the difficulty to be overcome, — has more greatness, unity, and completion. The heroes of Tasso, however, have not the natural and manly character possessed by those of Homer; they are *amateur* gentlemen and ladies, trying to perform their parts. Ariosto's heroes have far more of human nature and human feeling. Tasso was not much an observer, nor was he a man of experience in human affections and passions; he had few sympathies with the beings who surrounded him; the world within him was that in which he dwelt. He painted with an embellishing glow, from idea, or from art, but rarely from nature. His heroes and heroines have all a certain poetry of imagination, which is utterly unnatural to military and practical life. His own mind agitates every one of the puppets, and speaks through its lips: — in form, appearance, dialect, and circumstance, as various as Proteus, it is the single Proteus still.

After the general preliminaries, a separate section is consecrated to the epic art of each principal literary nation. The Argonautics of Apollonius are characterized in the words of Quintilian, "*non contemnendum opus edidit equali quidam mediocritate.*" How much lower in modern times than among the ancients is the standard of literary excellence, when the author of the Loves of Medea (lib. iii.) was to be coolly characterized 'by an equality of mediocrity above contempt?' The Hero and Leander of Musæus is dated in the fourth century, or fifth; and Coluthus in the sixth.

Concerning Homer, we hazarded (Vol. lxxii. p. 278.) the conjecture that he is the same person as the poet Thales, known to have been cotemporary with Lycurgus, and to have migrated with that lawgiver from Crete to Sparta. We therefore do not agree with M. BRETON, or M. *Eschenburg*, about the chronology of the writings: but we are willing to accede to the guess of the Oracle when consulted by the Emperor Hadrian concerning the birth-place of the poet. In naming Ithaca, it seemingly accounted for the local knowledge displayed in the *Odyssey*, and for the choice of that subject. A nautical hospitality for the provincialisms of every shore marks the style of Homer; and this peculiarity his Alexandrian editors were disposed to respect and to approve. M. *Schlegel* compares the successive rhapsodies of Homer to those antique basso-relievos, sculptured around vases, which are composed of insulated groupes of figures, independent both of those which precede and follow, and those which appear to have neither beginning nor end. A translation of a part of the Greek dialogue concerning Homer, written by
the

the present Duke of Piacenza, (*Le Brun*), is incorporated in the author's criticism.

The Latin epopea obtains its share of commentary, and occupies the fourteenth chapter. Virgil, Lucan, Flaccus, Statius, Silius Italicus, and Claudian, are severally reviewed; and occasional criticisms on the modern translators occur.

[To be continued.]

ART. XVIII. *Correspondance Littéraire*, &c.; i.e. Literary, Philosophical, and Critical Correspondence, addressed to a German Sovereign, by the Baron GRIMM and by DIDEROT. Part II. from the Years 1770 to 1782. 8vo. 5 Vols. Paris. 1812. Also Part III. and last, from 1782 to 1790. 8vo. 5 Vols. Paris. 1813. * Imported by De Boffe. Price 3l. and 3l. 13s. 6d.

IT is well known that the French theatre has ever been scrupulously attentive not merely to the excellence of the performers, who were in some degree to guide the public taste; but to the scenes of which the representation might affect the public morals. So guarded was the national delicacy on this point, that even the wit and nature of *Molière* were insufficient to procure for him, in latter days, that ascendancy to which he doubtless is intitled over all comic writers. Things continued in this state, until M. *Caron de Beaumarchais* was seized with a fancy to compose a comedy in which every character should be the personification of a vice: for years it was prohibited; it was then curtailed, pruned, altered, and spiritualised as far as its earthy nature would admit; and, supported by all the brilliancy of dialogue and ingenuity of intrigue, it was at length represented to an audience which enjoyed and condemned it at the same time. Let not our readers suppose that the *Mariage de Figaro*, to the endurance of which the French nation considers itself indebted for much of that effrontery in vice which soon afterward broke through all reserve, was of that profound villainess which is so much relished and admired in our *Beggar's Opera*. The first is simply a picture of vicious morals, but the manners are those of the highest polish; while the latter nobly aims at subverting virtue by the additional *ragout* of manners the most gross and disgusting. Unexceptionable in the latter point, and incomparably less exceptionable in the former, the *Mariage de Figaro* was considered as unfit for representation before women of any character or decency: it was, in a word, like a certain modern novel in this country, the one forbidden thing; and, like that work

* The first part of this Correspondence has not yet appeared.

it excited the greater curiosity from the prohibition. As the play, however, was not yet published, the difficulty of gratifying curiosity, without forfeiting character, made it incumbent on correct ladies to secure to themselves those parts of the house which were less prominent; and in which, by means of a *deshabille*, they might enjoy all the sweets of the sin without disparagement to their reputation for virtue. A friend of *Beaumarchais* requested of him the use of a little private box of this description, for the benefit, and, no doubt, for the improvement of his wife and his daughters. We translate his answer:

"I have no consideration, *M. le Duc*, for women who permit themselves to view a spectacle which they consider as immoral, provided that they can view it in secret; nor will I be accessory to such fancies. I have presented my drama to the public for its amusement, and not for its instruction; not to afford scolds grown tame the pleasure of going to think well of it in a concealed box, on condition of abusing it in society. The pleasures of vice and the honors of virtue constitute the prudery of the age. My piece is not an equivocal work: it is necessary to avow or to avoid it.

"I salute you, *M. le Duc*, and I keep my box."

For some time, the author was supposed to have addressed this admirable letter to the *Duc de Villequier*, and afterward to the *Duc d'Aumont*. It appeared, however, to have been merely a salutary word of advice to one of the author's best friends, whose wife and daughters wished to see the play without sharing the scandal.

Most seriously do we recommend this letter to all those who, after having read and enjoyed the attractive book before us, shall venture to treat it as it has been most undeservedly treated by some persons; and the more so, because we already perceive it to be the fashion to commend the work for the amusement which it has afforded, and to evince a holy sort of abhorrence of that Parisian society which it faithfully portrays.

In late years, it has been equally the fashion to impute every vice, that is committed in this country, to the contagion of French principles and French association. Does an idle fellow in high life turn into a gaming-house in St. James's Street, and emerge from it disencumbered of his hounds, his horses, and perhaps of his estate? Does a public defaulter build houses and plant almost imperial domains? Does a noble lord, the father of a numerous family, alienate from her husband a plain but noble matron of another numerous family? These things are mere levities in a man who is happy enough to have been born on this side of the Channel; and, moreover, these levities are regarded as the pure effects of imitating a people whom we affect to despise. Nay so blind is a true Englishman, from habit, to

the scenes which fill and disgrace his domestic annals, that he can traverse Mary-le-bone parish, or the Strand, — can pace through the abominations of a lobby and a saloon at the theatre, — can, in a word, peruse the columns of a news-paper, and really and in good earnest imagine that people are yet worse abroad. Would that it were so; or, at least, that we were better than people abroad! In condemning crime, we should not sanction hypocrisy.

Let it be remembered that these volumes are not so much the registers of order as of excentricity. That which is regular, ordinary, simply respectable, and by no means striking, finds no place, and *should* find none, in a book of this nature. It were for the interest of society that regularity, order, and respectability the most monotonous, should every where be found: it is for their amusement that deviations from these fixed principles should daily occur. The tranquil sea were undoubtedly the safer, but incidents are the result of waters in commotion.

Proportionably to the talents and ambition of individuals, — to the variety of interests, parties, cabals, and intrigues, which are in the bosom of all very large societies, — to the vices, virtues, and excentricities with which they abound, — will a book of this sort be instructive and entertaining. All these are elements common to Paris and to London. In both cities, parts of the population are engaged in the exclusive pursuit of pleasure and of literature: it is not our province now to discuss whether the former be right or wrong: but the fact is simply so, and will irrevocably be the same; and therefore it remains to be proved in which of the two capitals the followers of pleasure are most successful in their career, and in which the objects pursued are less gross, less sensual, less detrimental to the health*; in a word, most nearly allied to what is termed *mind*. Literature will be the career of another class, for all countries have a class of the unfortunate. Where, then, has taste fixed her throne? Where shall we find the truest tact,

* These volumes afford strong presumptive evidence that pleasure and intemperance were not in Paris so inseparable as in northern capitals. The writer, who had the advantage of youth over his contemporaries, follows the authors whom he has admired, and the patrons on whom he depended, through the evening of their lives to their extinction. They are all men of the world, immersed in all its business, pleasure, pride, pomp, and circumstance; and yet this vast obituary is almost exclusively composed of deaths from the age of seventy-four to ninety, and some even at a period yet more advanced. Where longevity is so general, great moral depravity should hardly be expected. We take no notice of the author's opinions, or those of his immediate friends; our observations are simply confined to events, and not extended to speculations.

the most infallible judgment, fewer reputations of ten years, fewer *men of the day*? In which of the two capitals is the opinion of the existing time a more sure anticipation of the opinion of posterity? In which are the claims to applause more frequently the claims to public and private munificence? Where does the candidate for fame meet with most encouragement? Where is his youth less solitary, his age more comfortable? In which of the countries is literature most elevated above commercial speculation? We speak not of the arts. Paris has long been the shew-box of the world, and we revile the Parisians for this ascendancy. They are better actors, better dancers, better talkers: but *we are better men* seems to be the summary of our ill-authenticated creed. If we despise the arts in which they excel, why have we, at an unexampled expence, constructed and embellished two colossal theatres? Why have we consecrated a monument to Garrick? Because we have all the desire without the attention to shine in arts that we affect to call contemptible and immoral. We would willingly behold that goodly sight, a rational, well-plotted, well-written, well-acted comedy, but we are deficient in all the elements of such a representation. We would willingly permit all our sympathies to be awakened by perfect tragedy: but we have no *Talma*, and lately we have had no *Clairon*, nor any of their supporters, to produce the effect. We would willingly equal or excel our neighbours in the fascination of the scene: but, from failure in these fascinations, the audience are referred for their diversion to that incredibly debasing scene, an English lobby. We attempt all things in common with our neighbours; and, if we fail, much do we fear that we do not fail from any want of profligacy.

We are rather surprized that any readers of this Correspondence should have been scandalized by the few offences against decorum which are committed in such a long and miscellaneous work. So far from joining them in the cry of scandal, we repeat that for a book professing to reveal all, we wonder at the very little which *is* revealed in the annals of the gayest society of the gayest city in the world, that has any need of concealment, or even of apology. These volumes are the news-papers of Paris from the years 1770 to 1790. Let those who censure them beware lest the news-papers of London for the years 1812 and 1813 should, by any chance, fall into their hands.

FREDERIC MELCHIOR GRIMM was born at Ratisbon, December 26. 1723. Rich only in industry and talents, he left the country in which he was not appreciated at his true value, and settled at Paris. A mutual taste for literature and music procured for him the friendship and subsequently the

hatred of *Rousseau*. Young and ardent, he was ever engaged in some affair of the heart. His unfortunate love for Mademoiselle *Fel*, an actress at the opera, who cruelly refused him her favours, so preyed on his spirits, that he was seized with a disease as dreadful as non-descript. He remained for some days stretched on his bed, with his eyes fixed, his limbs stiff, and neither spoke nor ate, nor discovered any signs of animation. His friends believed that he was dead. The Abbé *Raynal* and *Rousseau* passed whole nights by his side: but his physician did not augur so unfavourably of his complaint; and in fact, one fine morning, GRIMM sat up in bed, dressed himself, and abandoned all thoughts of his Lucretia.

This adventure procured for him a great renown among the ladies: he was from this moment considered as the most passionate and constant of lovers; and it is on record that many fair dames were found less cruel than Mademoiselle *Fel*. Good fortune, however, had its usual effect in making him proud, assuming, and arrogant; and, from this time, *Jean Jacquet* declared him to have been insupportable.

GRIMM paid great attention to an unpromising person. His toilette was with him an affair of the greatest importance: red and white paint were found on his table; and ridicule had no effect in repressing this folly: but, accustomed to society, he received and returned with a good grace the pleasantries called down on him by his almost feminine coquetries. At the death of his protector the Comte de F****, he expressed his grief in the most lively manner; and it was found necessary to tear him forcibly away from the place where he had lost his patron and his friend, and to give him a home in the Hôtel de Castries. There every morning he would weep in the walks of the garden, and hold up to his eyes a handkerchief moistened with tears. *Rousseau*, indeed, pretends that he wept only when he was observed; and that, when he perceived that no person was at hand to witness the profoundness of his grief, he put his handkerchief in his pocket, and took out a book: but *Rousseau* became so morose as he advanced in life, and so prejudiced against GRIMM, that we may be allowed to suspect his testimony.

The connection of GRIMM with the conductors of the Encyclopædia, his intimacy with the greatest men in France, the variety of his knowledge, and the suppleness of his mind, opened to him a brilliant career. During his great popularity, arose the musical dispute between the Gluckists and Piccinists, from each of whom one party seceded, who yet obstinately adhered to *Rameau*. Ever alive to the passing scene, GRIMM declared for both the foreign schools against the heavy and

unmeaning music of France. The dispute increased. The Queen sided with the admirers of Piccini; and this division gave rise to the theatrical appellations of the *King's corner*, and *Queen's corner*, in which the favourers of the old and the new school were accustomed to display their strength. With such violence did GRIMM assault the old French music, that all men considered him as in danger of meeting his reward in the Bastille: but this storm blew over; and the pamphlet which excited it procured for its author fresh applauses and yet greater popularity. For some years he was secretary to the Duke of Orleans: he was engaged in a literary correspondence with several German princes, and more particularly with the Duke of Saxe-Gotha; and he was distinguished by the favour of Catherine, of the great Frederic, and of Gustavus the Third of Sweden.

In 1776, the Duke of Saxe-Gotha appointed him his minister-plenipotentiary to the court of France. He was then transformed from a citizen to a nobleman, and assumed the title of Baron. He retained, however, his former familiarity of manners, and all his former habitudes, until the happy sky of France was troubled by the revolutionary tempest; when he accepted an asylum at Gotha, which was presented to him by his old master. He was successively employed as a diplomatist by the Empress of Russia, and by Paul, and did not cease to exercise these functions until an accident deprived him of the use of an eye. He then retired from active life to study and repose at Gotha, where he died December 19. 1807.

A favoured guest at the table of the celebrated Madame Geoffrin, a friend of all the great, an intimate and an associate of Voltaire, Diderot, d'Alembert, Marmontel, Raynal, Rousseau, and Delille, a contemporary of distinguished men, and living at the eve of grand and terrible events, he imposed on himself the pleasing task of noting down all that Paris offered to his curiosity for the benefit of his master, the Duke of Saxe-Gotha.

From memoirs written in such a capital, and in such an age, we are intitled to expect a fund of instruction, wit, anecdote, and amusement of all kinds, which could have been furnished under no other auspices: but it would be demanding too much to require that all the volumes should be equally and unexceptionably entertaining. The first two are incomparably the best; those in which criticism, anecdote, and biographical notices,—in a word, all the business, bustle, and gay confusion which form the soul of memoirs,—succeed each other with the most rapid and agreeable interchange.

Having presented to our readers a short account of the author, and attempted to vindicate his twenty years' history of Paris

Paris from scandal, we hasten to select some citations, which may enable him to speak for himself :

' *Young's Night-Thoughts* enjoy a great reputation in England, and even in Europe. They tell me that there is a German translation, which is considered as a master-piece : but I have not seen it. A certain M. le Tourneur gave us, last year, a French version of it ; and M. Colardeau, who has lately translated the first *Night*, no doubt for the purpose of doing honour to his rival, declares its success to be surprizing. May I die if I have even heard it named ! This style of writing can hardly succeed in France ; we are not sufficiently self-collected and solitary ; we cannot bestow on it the time which is necessary to produce a great effect. I cannot help reproaching this kind of poesy with the vague and indefinite notions in which it leaves the reader. We may remark in Young and his imitators a feverish head and a disturbed and bewildered imagination, rather than a heart profoundly affected ; we scarcely know of what it is that he complains, and what are his misfortunes ; we are ignorant of the objects of his grief, although he talks of them for ever. He introduces withall too many church-bells, too many tombs, too many funeral songs and shrieks, and too many phantoms ; the simple and natural expression of true grief would excite infinitely more effect than all these images : my tears should be called forth : the poet should not attempt to frighten me like a child by images terrible in appearance, but which produce not any present effect, and leave no lasting sentiment behind them.'

✓ The Mareschal de Saxe and Mademoiselle Chantilly :

' The great celebrity of Mademoiselle Chantilly arose from the passion with which she had inspired the great Maurice of Saxony, and to which she was wholly insensible. This part of her romance affords much scope for moral reflections. The hero of France, the conqueror of Fontenoy and Laufeldt, the finest man of his time, was distractedly in love with a little creature who was miserable at being compelled by interest to be his mistress, because her head was turned by an insignificant ill-made pastry-cook's boy named Favart, who had run away from his master's shop to make songs and comic operas as they were then written. This pastry-cook's boy triumphantly bore off from the Mareschal de Saxe his little mistress, and escaped with her during the siege of Maëstricht. The night of their departure was so stormy, that the bridges of communication between the Mareschal's army and the corps of Lowendal, which was posted on the other side of the river, were completely carried away ; and great apprehensions were entertained lest the enemy might avail himself of the circumstance by falling on this corps, and destroying it. M. Dumesnil, who was then known by the name of the handsome Dumesnil, entered the Mareschal's chamber early in the morning, and, finding him sitting on his bed, his hair disordered, and in the most violent agitation, of grief, endeavoured to console him. " No doubt," said Dumesnil, " it is a great misfortune, but it may yet be remedied." — " Ah! my friend," replied the Mareschal, " there is no remedy, I am undone." Dumesnil continued his attempts to raise his leader's drooping spirits, by assur-

ing him that the event of the night would not be so fatal as he expected. "It will not," said he, "be attended with the consequences that are apprehended." The Mareschal still declared that things were desperate, and that he was without any resources. At length, in the course of a quarter of an hour, he perceived that *Dumesnil* was speaking only of the bridges which had been carried away. — "*Eh, who is talking to you,*" said he, "*about the broken bridges; that is an inconvenience which I can rectify in three hours. — But Chantilly! she has run away from me.*" The hero who had never lost an hour's rest in consequence of any warlike operation, however important, was in despair on being deserted by a courtesan!

'After her entrance on the stage at Paris, this little creature married the pastry-cook's apprentice, now turned author and poet, and set off with him, if I am not mistaken, for Lorraine. The great Maurice, irritated at a resistance beyond any that he had ever experienced, had the weakness to demand a *lettre de cachet*, empowering him to rob a husband of his wife, and to make her his concubine; and, which is yet more incredible, the *lettre de cachet* was granted, and carried into execution. This couple bent beneath the yoke of necessity, and the little *Chantilly* was at the same time the wife of *Favart* and mistress of *Maurice de Saxe*. She was even perhaps the cause of this hero's death. He had taken her with him to Chambord; and she had passed in his bed the very night in which he was attacked with that illness which in a few days robbed France of his services. History says that she soon replaced her illustrious lover by a little asthmatic abortion, the *Abbé de Voisenon*. It was apparently the destiny of this proud Saxon, who never suffered any check in war, to have verse-makers for his rivals in love, and even to see them preferred to himself.'

Anecdote of Dr. *Silva* :

'The celebrated physician *Silva*, after a journey which he made to Bordeaux, was consulted during his residence in that city by all the inhabitants; and the prettiest women came in procession to talk to him of nervous complaints with which they declared themselves to be tormented. *Silva* made no answer, and prescribed no remedy. At length, when pressed to explain the motives of his silence, he said with the air of an oracle, "I am silent because these are not nervous maladies, but the falling sickness."—On the next day, not a woman was to be found at Bordeaux affected by any nervous complaint; the fear of being suspected of a frightful disease was an instantaneous cure. The conduct of *Silva* was that of a man of profound and sterling good sense: people are desirous of exciting interest; but are unwilling to be objects of horror.'

The absurdities that are to be picked up in a great city form a considerable portion of the anecdotes of this work. The consultation of the principal courtiers assembled at the palace of the Bishop of *Noyon*, to decide on a point of etiquette which concerned a court-minuet, is described with a delightful gravity; and the epigram, in which all Parisian absurdities and misfortunes never fail to end, is worthy of the circumstance
which

which gave rise to it. The epigram is indeed to Paris what the caricature is to London: it is generally busied in seizing and laughing at the folly of the day: but it differs from the caricature in one very essential point. All who can conceive an epigrammatic turn of thought have the power, in this scribbling age at least, of embodying it in decent verse; and hence a very large proportion of the population have the happiness of effectually turning to ridicule all that is grotesque among their fellow-citizens. A folly or a vice, a cruel or a kind monarch, a bad or a good author, a victory or a defeat, seems alike to have afforded food to the epigrammatist of Paris. When things went well, his quatrain owed its sting to his gaiety of soul; when things went ill, a Frenchman would swear and fume for a while, but, at the first occurrence of a happy thought, his anger would subside, and all would end in an epigram or a *vaudeville*.

Epigram on M. de Rochefort, who had been guilty of a tiresome translation in verse of the Iliad and Odyssey:

*"Quel est ce triste personnage ?
C'est un Grec
Qui fit Homère à son image,
Maigre et sec."*

Epigram on the crowd of descriptive poets who at this period were setting all the world to sleep with their scenery and nonsense:

*"Ennuieux, formés par Virgile,
Qui nous excédez constamment,
De grâce, Messieurs, un moment
Laissez la Nature tranquille."*

IMITATED:

Ye bards who in country-description run riot,
Of lake, mountain, glen, where the winds make their moan,
Shew some pity to sense, burn your pens, and be quiet,
And leave for a moment poor Nature alone.

The author of *Figaro* would not have been reputed completely successful, had he failed to have attracted to himself a compliment of this nature. That which we are going to cite is more diffuse than the former, but is full of meaning. It is said to have come from the pen of the Chevalier de Langeac. We much question whether it is in the power of the caricaturist to commit to paper any thing so keen, critical, and formidable.

EPIGRAMME:

*"Je vis hier du fond d'une coulisse
L'extravagante nouveauté."*

Qui,

Qui, triomphant de la Police,
 Profane des Français le spectacle enchanté.
 Dans ce drame effronté chaque acteur est un vice :
 Bartholo nous peint l'avarice ;
 Almaviva le séducteur,
 Sa tendre moitié l'adultère,
 Et Double-Main un plat voleur ;
 Marcelline est une Mégère ;
 Basile un calomniateur ;
 Fanchette l'innocente est trop apprivoisée ;
 Et le Page d'Amour, au doux nom Chérubin,
 Est, à vrai dire, un fiffé libertin,
 Protégé par Suzon, fille plus que rasée.
 Pour l'esprit de l'ouvrage, il est chez Bride-Oison.
 Mais Figaro ? . . . le drole à son patron
 Si scandaleusement ressemble,
 Il est si frappant qu'il fait peur ;
 Et pour voir à la fin tous les vices ensemble,
 Le parterre en chorus a demandé l'auteur.'

Another dreadful arm of vengeance is the *vaudeville*, or ballad ; which, without disparagement to our own effusions of the same kind, carries mischief to a degree of perfection among our neighbours to which we can never aspire. We have doubtless many minds stored with images, which, if faithfully portrayed by the pencil, would produce admirable caricatures : but the hand which is unaccustomed to follow the ludicrous figures, that are suggested by the fancy, is unable to impress them on others. A genius for the caricature can be cultivated only by the artist, while a turn for the epigram and the *vaudeville* may be almost generally indulged ; and, where the competition is so great, the select production is in general more finished. The French have ever been celebrated for their art in seizing and portraying character. If their proverbs are not so numerous as those of the Spaniards, their sentences and maxims are unrivalled in number and application ; and *La Bruyère* and *Roche-foucauld* stand without equals and almost without competitors. Many sayings, maxims, and characters, are interspersed through the volumes before us : but, as our readers are probably more disposed for anecdotes, we will (at present, at least,) indulge them in this general and prevailing taste.

' When, after the famous adventure of the Siege of Calais, Mademoiselle *Clairon* took leave of the theatre, from indignation at being put into confinement, and said with a most affecting and pathetic emphasis that the King was the master of her life and fortune, but not of her honor, *Sophie Arnoud* answered, *You are right; Mademoiselle, where there is nothing, the King loses his rights.*'

' One

' One evening, the Abbe Galiani was at the theatre of the court, where all the audience were enthusiastically admiring the voice of *Sophie Arnoud*. On being asked his opinion, he said, "*It is the finest aria that I ever heard.*"

' M. de *** was reproached with having read the best authors with too much assiduity, more particularly *Racine* and *Voltaire*, and with having too retentive a memory at those moments when he yielded to the enthusiasm of composition: so that his most striking verses, it was said, were merely reminiscences. One day, when he was reading one of his compositions to the Abbé de Voisenon, the latter got up every instant, and every time made a profound bow. — "*What the d—l do you mean by all your bows?*" said the enraged author. — "*In common politeness,*" replied the satirical priest, "*we should salute our old acquaintances as they pass by.*"

' M. de Sarsine is much commended for the extreme acuteness with which he made an important discovery. A man, who had denied having received a deposit, was cited to appear before him; and when confronted by him, he persisted in the denial. "*I believe you,*" said M. de S., "*but still you must write from my room to your wife some words of my dictation: 'All is discovered, and I am lost if you do not directly bring the deposit that we have received.'*" The man turned pale at this proposal, and foresaw that his wife, thus surprized, would not fail to betray him. In fact, the whole was discovered; and a truth thus extorted from a faithless friend, by an expedient so very ingenious, is equal to the judgment of Solomon."

' An Englishman, who had arrived at Ferney to see M. de Voltaire, was asked whence he came, and replied that he had been passing some time with M. de Haller. — "*M. de Haller,*" exclaimed the patriarch, "*is a great man, a great poet, a great naturalist, a great philosopher, almost an universal genius.*" "Your praises," answered the traveller, "are so much the more honourable that M. de Haller does not do you the same justice." "*Alas!*" replied M. de Voltaire, "*we both of us perhaps deceive ourselves.*"

' The Abbé de Radouwilliers paid the following beautiful compliment to the King, to whom he had been appointed sub-preceptor: "*In general we say to Kings, 'Beware of flatterers;'*" at this time we ought to say to flatterers, "*Beware of the King.*"

' Doctor Franklin speaks little; and at the commencement of his residence at Paris, while France was yet undecided whether she should openly declare in favour of the colonies, he spoke yet less. At a dinner of Parisian wits, one of the party, with intent to draw him into conversation, bethought himself of saying, "We must allow, Sir, that America offers to us at present a grand and proud spectacle." — "*Yes,*" answered Franklin with his usual modesty, "*but the spectators pay nothing.*" — They have since paid most munificently."

' Some time ago, the younger *Vestris* was sent to confinement in Fort-l'Évêque, for having obstinately refused to perform in a ballet called *Armide*. Nothing could be more affecting than the parting scene of the father and son. "*Go,*" said the god of the dance, in the middle of the green-room, "*go, my son; this is the most glorious day*"

in your life ; take my carriage, and demand the apartment of my friend the King of Poland : I will pay for all."

The above anecdote calls to mind another of the same personage.

' When young *Vestris* came on the stage, his father, dressed in the richest and most exact costume of the court, with a sword at his side, and a *chapeau de bras*, presented himself with his son in front of the stage ; and, addressing the pit on the dignity and sublimity of his art, and the noble hopes which the august inheritor of his name inspired, he turned with an imposing air to the young candidate, and said to him, "*Come, my son, display your talent to the public ; your father beholds you.*"'

' On another occasion, the god of the dance himself was confined for a similar refusal to obey the orders of the Queen. Not only the whole family of *Vestris*, but all Paris were in consternation at this severity. "*This is the first time,*" said one of that illustrious name, "*that the house of the Vestris has ever been on ill terms with that of the Bourbons.*"'

These light and portable extracts will convey some idea to our readers of the diversity of matter here treated. They will possibly be displeased, in perusing the work, at observing the great importance which is attached to the theatres and opera of Paris, and at the noble pensions and rewards which were usually conferred on those who were eminent in the difficult art of acquiring theatrical excellence. The maxim at Paris is, *no theatre, or perfection*. Theatrical talent is therefore carefully cultivated and liberally rewarded. A people accustomed to read good books, to talk good sense, and to behold good manners, will not consent to expose their judgments to the insults offered to them by such pieces as *John Bull*, the *Beggar's Opera*, *George Barnwell*, or the *Quadrupeds of Quidlenburg*. — But what are we saying ? Those happy people are no more. A dark cloud has long hung over them, and has not yet dispersed. With a genius expressly formed for society and literature, they have idly meddled with politics ; and a country, as one of their authors expresses it, geographically monarchical, has listened to the persuasions of Deists and of demagogues. The eve of the Revolution was announced by a change in their manners. No longer did the sexes meet so familiarly, to their mutual improvement. The French afternoon-dinner was exchanged for an English hour ; and English dress, English horses, and English follies were the order of this disastrous day. While he was natural, the Frenchman was respectable : but, in departing from his nature, he exchanged the love and admiration for the fear and hatred of the world. At Paris, society lost nearly all its charms. From being frank and playful, it grew reserved and monotonous. To have eyes and ears became dangerous ; to possess

possess a tongue was perdition. "The tide in the affairs of men" has at length set in, we hope, for the good of France, and of the nations for whose destruction she has been exhausted. Many years must doubtless intervene between the forced character which a bloody contest has imprinted on this amiable people, and the restoration of that natural character of which the delineation gives such interest to these memoirs: but may that character return, purified by suffering; and may its mild influence not only be felt at Paris, but, extending itself to the many millions of foreigners who imitate Parisians, may it atone in some degree for the violence, the bloodshed, and the rapine which have emanated from that capital to the desolation of the civilized world!

[To be continued.]

ART. XIX. *De la Défense des Places Fortes, &c.; i. e.* On the Defence of strong Places; a Work composed by Order of His Imperial and Royal Majesty, for the Instruction of young Men in the Corps of Engineers. By M. CARNOT, formerly an Officer of that Corps, and Minister of War, Member of the Legion of Honour and of the Institute of France, &c. &c. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 551. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s. sewed.

THIS performance does not treat of fortification, nor of the principles of military construction, although in this branch of science many important desiderata still remain: but the celebrated author's observations are confined to the defence of strong places; since he is of opinion that the barriers of the French empire are absolutely inexpugnable by any power or assemblage of powers whatsoever, if they be well defended. The work itself may be regarded as a sort of miscellaneous military narrative, the greatest part of it consisting of extracts from other writings relative to sieges, &c.; and, as it has no claim to originality, it can only be considered as useful to young gentlemen who are intended for the profession of arms in this respect, that it affords them information within a small compass, and brings under their view at once a quantity of knowledge, in order to obtain which they would otherwise be obliged to consult a variety of publications antient and modern.

Part I. refers to the 'valour' of those who are intrusted with the defence of places, and contains eight chapters, extending through 353 pages, 210 of which are taken up with an account of sieges; and the second part relates to their 'industry,' containing three chapters, with a general conclusion, and three additional memoirs. It hence appears that M. CARNOT considers

ders the whole of the defensive art as consisting in valour and industry :

‘ All the duties of a military man,’ (he says,) ‘ who is charged with the defence of a place, are reducible to two : 1st, to be steadfast in the resolution of perishing rather than delivering it up ; 2d, to know all the means which industry furnishes for insuring its defence. It is thus on these two points that I establish the division of this work.’

At the beginning also of his *General Conclusion*, p. 465., he says,

‘ *Valour ! Industry !* The whole defence of places is comprised in these two words, which have each been made the subject of one of the two parts of this work.’

We think, however, that he might have added to these properties, skill, contrivance, and judgment : since without them a man, though he possess both valour and industry, may commit many mistakes ; and, as the author gives an account of various antient sieges, he might have introduced that of Syracuse by the Romans under Marcellus, and have supplied a beautiful illustration of the great advantages of these qualities in the conduct of Archimedes, who not only baffled but even treated with scorn all the attempts of his enemies to take the place by force, while at the same time he excited their astonishment and admiration.

M. CARNOT does not appear to have been sufficiently attentive to facts in his narrative of sieges ; as a proof of which, we need only refer our readers to his account of the siege of Lilybœum by the Romans during the first Punic war. It is both defective and incorrect ; and whoever will take the trouble of comparing it with the circumstantial and accurate account given by Polybius will perceive a wide difference between them.

It is here strongly recommended to those who are besieged, to make an abundant use of what is called the *faux courbes* or *verticaux*, or the throwing of stones and grenades with mortars at a great angle of elevation, such as 45° , as soon as the besiegers have established their third parallel: but a judicious use of Col. Shrapnel’s spherical case-shot would be much more advantageous in the defence of places, and would greatly annoy the enemy from the very commencement of his approaches, or from the moment of his advancing from the first parallel.

We have heard it said, but we do not know with what truth, that ‘ His Imperial and Royal Majesty’ not only ordered the composition of this volume, but was materially concerned in its formation. — An English translation of it is just advertized.

ART. XX. *Bagatelles, &c.; i. e. Trifles; or Rambles of an Idler through the City of St. Petersburg.* 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 443. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s.

It does not often happen that reviewers are enabled to say that the substance of a book exceeds its title. Something of this kind, however, may be advanced with regard to this little work, which is the production of a person who is capable of writing essays of a grave class, and who seems to assume an air of trifling with the view of being more generally acceptable. The style is lively, though somewhat diffuse: but, which is of more consequence than style, the principles of the author are of the right sort. His publication consists of a series of short essays, exhibiting views of the manners and state of society in Petersburg. He addresses his reader in the first person, and takes great pains to enliven the tedium of description by the introduction of living personages. This sort of writing is common in France: but we seldom find such a proportion of real and useful matter wrought up into these imaginary fabrics. We put together a few passages selected from different essays, and affording a favourable specimen of the rest:

‘ Few towns are more convenient for pedestrians than Petersburg. This is owing to the climate and the length of the distances. In some streets, the pavement is excellent; while, in others, the quays along the canals offer a busy and cheerful prospect. It has been computed that a person may walk in this city more than thirty miles on smooth pavement, without going twice over the same ground. Near the canals, the foot-way is raised so as to prevent any hazard to the walker from carriages; and all the bridges, numerous as they are, have railings of iron, or balustrades of stone or wood. These accommodations have made walking at St. Petersburg much less unfashionable than it was formerly; for in Russia this exercise is by no means the national taste. Petersburg, it is clear, was planned in the first instance for the convenience of the great: but it happens that the light sandy soil, on which the city is built, prevents the stones from adhering so closely as to withstand the shock of carriages; so that newly paved streets, if much traversed, become uneven in the course of a week. The pavement-stones are too small; a defect which would long since have been remedied, did not ice and snow supply their place in this capital during half the year.—

‘ The most striking part of Petersburg is the Newski prospect. We see here the beauties of the different capitals of Europe: streets wider and better paved than those of London or Berlin; canals superior to those of Amsterdam or Venice; and hotels preferable to those of France or Italy. Behold those magnificent panes of glass, of five or six feet in length, forming of themselves a window, and in use not only among the great but the middling class! During the day, the sight of them is less animated; because, being double on account of the cold, they give an indifferent view of the interior apartment: but, in the evening, by lamp-light, the show is beautiful beyond description.—If, however, we turn to the quarters of the lower orders, what a

contrast

contrast do we find ! Look at these countrymen with bushy beards, hair bonnets, coarse doublets, bare necks, shaggy bosoms, and wooden shoes. Look at their horses loaded with wooden collars, and dragging the produce of the country on miserable sledges. Nowhere is human nature less advanced from the infancy of society. —

‘ No capital nor city in Europe is so well adapted to furnish materials for a varied journal as Petersburg: it presents an endless diversity of nations, religions, manners, and languages; and it could not fail to supply a rich mine to the observing powers of a writer of talents. In composing a news-paper or magazine for the inhabitants of this city, an editor would have no occasion to resort to the invidious topic of private scandal: since the traits of character are so remarkable, as to require nothing beyond faithful delineation. Away, then, with the vile practice of torturing and ridiculing private individuals: greater interest, as well as greater advantage, would be procured by pursuing the opposite alternative, and advocating the cause of knowledge and virtue.’

We could select many other passages which would amuse, but these may suffice.

ART. XXI. *Histoire de la Famille Bloum*, &c.; i. e. The History of the *Bloum Family*. Translated from the German of AUGUSTUS LA FONTAINE. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l.

THIS novel betrays many incongruities; among which may be reckoned the description of a Dutch naval captain who talks metaphysics, and that of a prudent mother who forbids her daughter's marriage because the lovers had not sufficient courage to elope. Some of the female characters exhibit an infantine simplicity, which the author seems to have mistaken and substituted for the innocence of youth; and persons of all ages are here represented as chusing to appear to their nearest connections under false names, and incurring sorrows and difficulties from such needless disguises. These concealments, however, produce some touching domestic scenes, and elicit virtuous sentiments, in which the mixture of human suffering with philosophic resignation is well portrayed.

ART. XXII. *Amélie et Clotilde*, &c.; i. e. *Amelia and Clotilda*. By J. Bocous. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l.

EVERY page is here made to “speak of some distressful stroke;” and the writer is apt to exaggerate the horror of a situation, or the villainy of a character, till it loses all resemblance to nature, and our sympathy is changed to incredulity. Yet the punishments of the wretches whom he paints are deficient in poetical justice; and the enormous wickedness of Clotilda should prevent her death from exciting such tender regret in those whom she had injured, as it is here supposed to produce.

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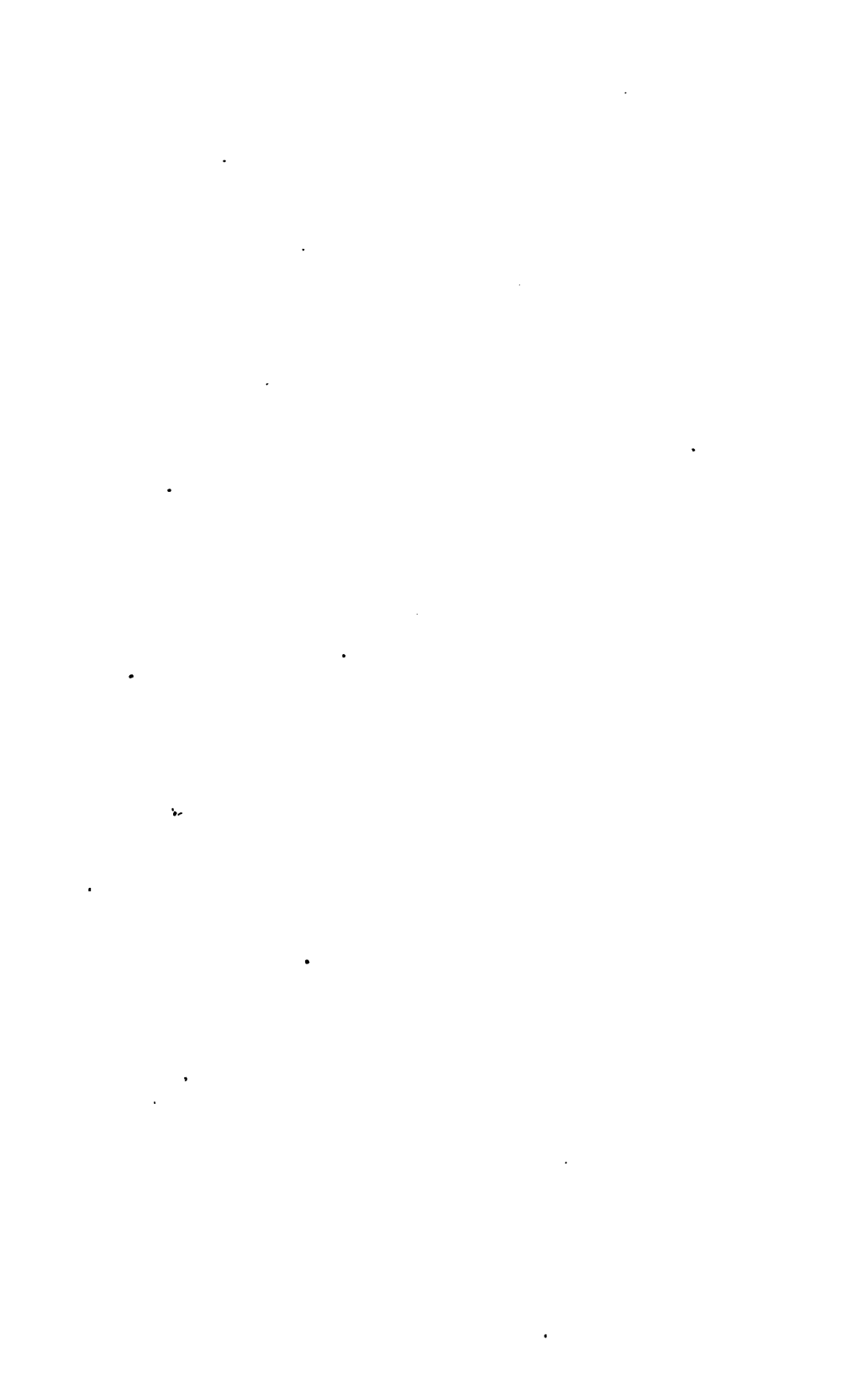
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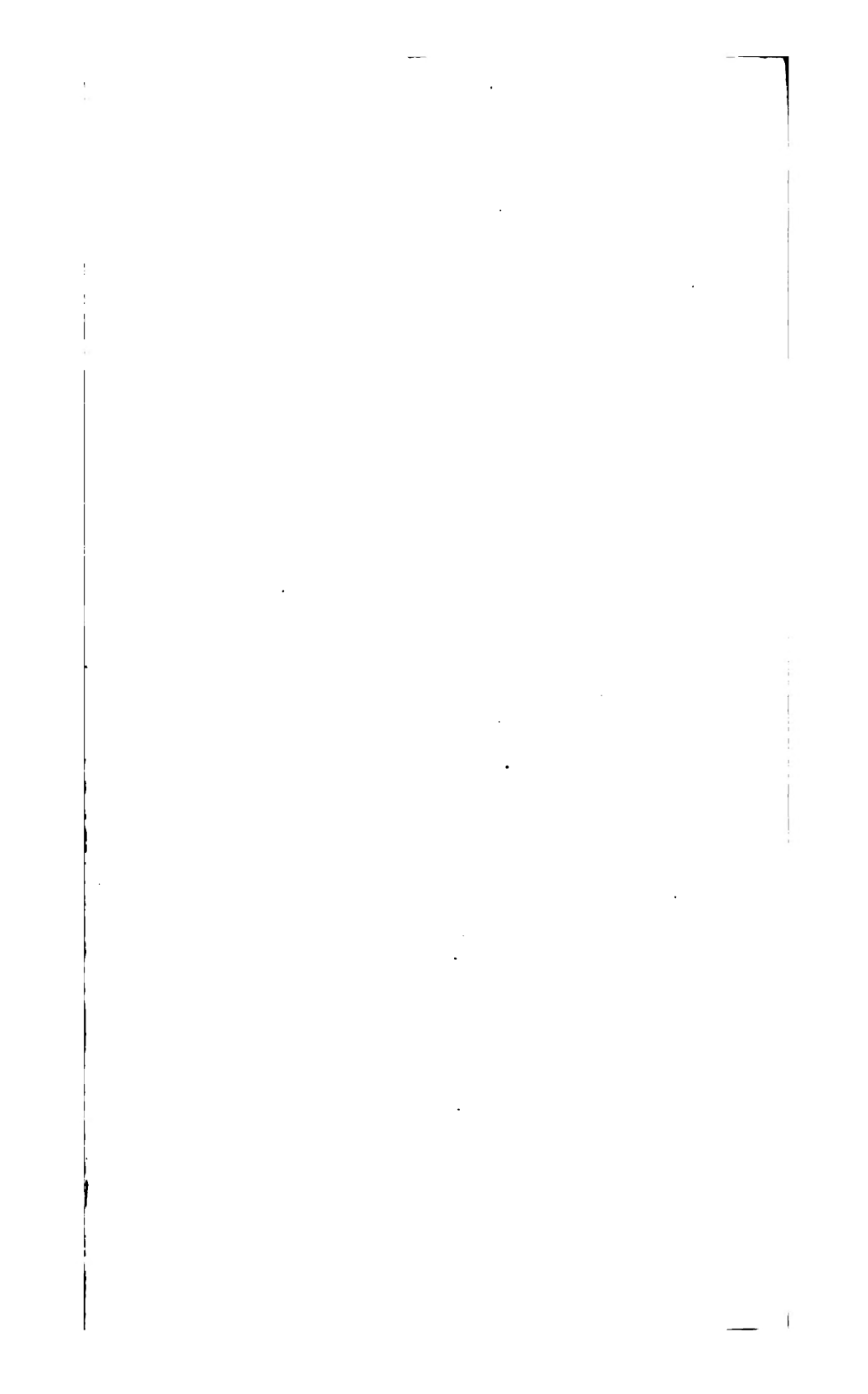
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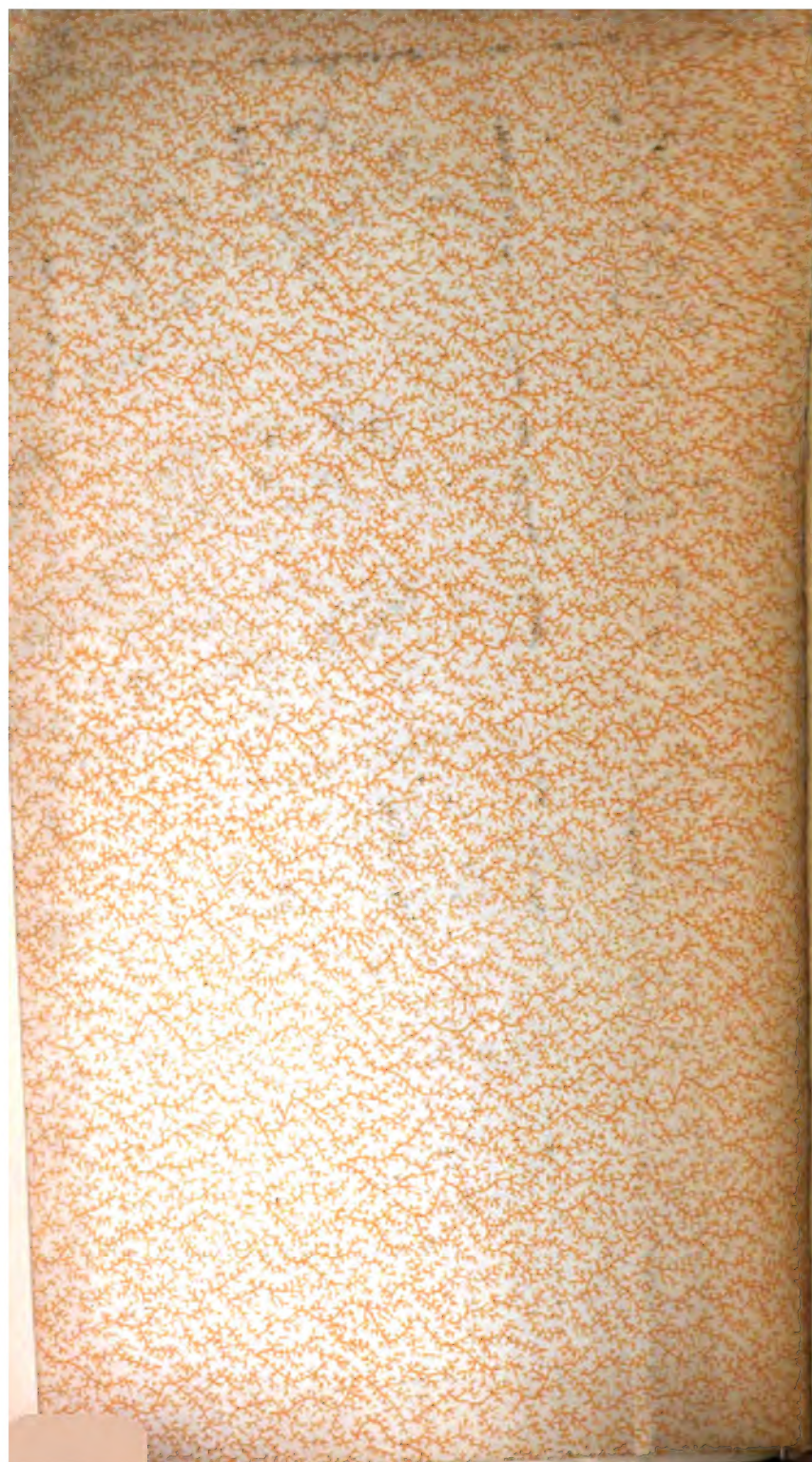
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ED. OCT 4 1913



